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Shubham Mahajan
José Braga de Vasconcelos *Editors*

Next-Generation Computational Intelligence: Trends and Technologies

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Next-Generation Computational Intelligence: Trends and Technologies

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Preface

The evolution of computational intelligence has intensely reshaped the way we perceive, interact with, and transform our world. As we stand at the crossroads of technological disruption and innovation, it becomes increasingly important to understand the emerging trends, challenges, and opportunities that define this dynamic landscape.

Computational Intelligence emerged in the late 20th century as a reaction to the complexity of real-world problems. Computational intelligence embodies the evolution of computer science by focusing on adaptive, heuristic, and non-symbolic computation, inspired by natural systems, and exploring the applications of natural computing in problem-solving, such as evolutionary algorithms and neural networks. In this context, *Next-Generation Computational Intelligence: Trends and Technologies* is a comprehensive volume designed to bridge foundational principles with cutting-edge advancements shaping the future of artificial intelligence and computing. This book brings together contributions from leading researchers, academicians, and practitioners across diverse domains, including artificial intelligence, cybersecurity, finance, education, robotics, IoT, augmented reality, and blockchain technology. Through a rich collection of chapters, it offers readers deep insights into how computational intelligence is evolving to meet the complex demands of modern society.

We have carefully structured this book to first explore ethical and futuristic perspectives of artificial intelligence, followed by emerging core technologies such as reinforcement learning and multimodal deep learning. The subsequent sections highlight innovative applications across finance, e-commerce, disaster management, education, and materials science. Special attention is given to the critical intersection of cybersecurity, IoT, blockchain, and fog computing—vital areas in an increasingly connected world. Finally, we venture into the transformative potentials of augmented and virtual reality, showcasing how intelligent systems are enhancing human–computer interaction and user experience.

Our goal is to provide a balanced narrative that is accessible to researchers, students, industry professionals, and policy-makers alike. Whether you are looking to understand the foundational shifts, explore interdisciplinary applications, or anticipate future directions, this book aims to serve as a reliable and stimulating guide.

We express our heartfelt gratitude to all contributors whose work has made this book possible. We also thank our readers for joining us on this journey through the ever-evolving world of next-generation computational intelligence.

We hope this book inspires innovative thinking, sparks new research ideas, and fosters a deeper appreciation for the powerful technologies shaping our collective future.

Gurugram, India — Shubham Mahajan
Porto, Portugal — José Braga de Vasconcelos

Contents

Foundations and Ethical Perspectives

Does Machines Matter: Ethical Issues and Artificial Intelligence 3
Damanpreet Kaur and Ramandeep Singh

Future Trends in Artificial Intelligence-Driven Information Systems 17
Shrabanti Kundu and Utpal Ghosh

Future Directions in Computational Intelligence: Anticipating the Next Wave 51
Lalit Kumar, Aryan Raj, Nimisha Singh, Ramandeep Sandhu, Gaurav Gangwar, and Deepika Ghai

Core Technologies and Innovations

Reinforcement Learning: Emerging Trends and Challenges 77
Narges Mashhadihajiali and Mehdy Roayaei

Multimodal Deep Learning: Bridging Text and Image Classification with Advanced Architectures 105
A. G. Jaswanth Remiel, K. Martin Sagayam, Pagidipalla Manith Sai, Rajath Nair, and Prasanalakshmi Balaji

Applications in Specialized Domains

AI in Finance: Computational Methods for Market Analysis and Risk Management 137
Anandkumar Pardeshi and Sujata Deshmukh

Strategic Innovation of AI and ML for Ecommerce Data Security 165
Sarita, Yogita Yashveer Raghav, and Kashish

Application, Benefits, and Challenges of Artificial Intelligence for Student Assessment: A Literature Review 195
Ankur Nandi, Sourav Sen, Santu Karmakar, Tapash Das, and Tarini Hader

Design of Advanced AZ61 Magnesium Composites with Enhanced Strength and Ductility Using ANN-Based Computational Modeling 209
Amit Tiwari

Cybersecurity and Intelligent Systems

Cybersecurity and Computational Intelligence: Protecting the Digital World 235
Chintada Chanukya Venkata Sai, Cheela Harshavardhan Reddy, Penumala Harsha Vardhan, and Enjula Uchoi

Internet Security Issues in Robotics for Brain-Computer Interface: Opportunities and Challenges 257
Ahona Ghosh, Sampoorna Poria, and Sriparna Saha

Advances in IoT, Blockchain, and Edge Computing

Decentralized Secure Computation Offloading for Mobile IoT Devices Using Blockchain and Metaheuristics 283
C. Premila Rosy, P. M. Sithar Selvam, T. Priya, Mohit Kumar, Shakir Khan, and S. Mayakannan

Enhancing Fog Computing with a Distributed Mobility-Aware Offloading Framework 303
Raj Kumar Gupta, Sangala Pradeep Kumar Reddy, P. Sengottuvelan, Hadeel Alsolai, Mohit Kumar, Shakir Khan, and S. Mayakannan

Enhancing Trust and Integrity in IoT-Fog Networks Using Blockchain-Based Auditing 323
N. A. Prashanth, Babu Naik Gugulothu, G. Shilpa, Hadeel Alsolai, Irfan Ahmad Khan, and S. Mayakannan

A Resource-Aware Blockchain Fog Framework for Secure and Scalable IoT Deployments on Edge Devices 353
G. Yamini, Rubaid Ashfaq, P. K. Dhal, Mohd Fazil, Irfan Ahmad Khan, Fatimah Alhayan, and S. Mayakannan

Augmented and Virtual Reality Innovations

From Pixels to Enhanced Presence: Innovations in Image Processing for Augmented and Virtual Reality 379
Gopal Krishna, Kapil Joshi, and Vineeta Singh

Displays for Virtual Reality and Augmented Reality: New Development and Potential Directions 403
Vivek Kumar, Kapil Joshi, Vineeta Singh, and Amrendra Tripathi

Foundations and Ethical Perspectives

Does Machines Matter: Ethical Issues and Artificial Intelligence

Damanpreet Kaur and Ramandeep Singh

Abstract If artificial intelligence (AI) applications are not implemented appropriately, they can and do have unexpected negative effects on businesses. AI applications that are biased or defective may lead to problems with governance and compliance, as well as damage to the company's brand. Various deficiencies in AI development, such as expedited processes, insufficient technical proficiency, and inadequate quality assurance, frequently contribute to these problems. To mitigate these dangers, an increasing number of firms are developing ethical AI frameworks and norms. Nonetheless, ethical AI principles alone cannot ensure the responsible implementation of AI within businesses. The domain of AI ethics examines ethical dilemmas in artificial intelligence. Addressing AI ethics necessitates the examination of both the ethical implications of Artificial Intelligence and the development of ethical Artificial Intelligence methods. The examination of Artificial Intelligence ethics investigates the moral principles, regulations, and norms that regulate artificial intelligence. Ethical AI is characterised as artificial intelligence that operates and functions in a morally sound manner. To uphold their principles, companies require robust, obligatory governance mechanisms, such as process management tools and the creation of corresponding audit trails. Organisations that establish robust government outlines, supervised by an ethical panel and reinforced by adequate guidance, will mitigate the danger linked to Artificial Intelligence. Implementing governance in AI modelling will facilitate the expansion of AI deployments for organisations.

Keywords Artificial intelligence · Ethics · Ethical AI

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1 Introduction

The use of AI to empower workers and corporations while having a rational influence on consumers and humanity is known as ethical Artificial Intelligence, or responsible AI. When AI is used responsibly, businesses can scale AI with confidence and gain trust. Globally, more and more organisations are creating frameworks and criteria for ethical AI. These include initiatives spearheaded by corporations, such as Microsoft's accountable Artificial Intelligence standards; trade unions, such as UNI Global Union; and academic institutions, such as The Institute for Ethical Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning. While ethical considerations are essential for responsible AI [9] they remain inadequate. Ethical principles possess genuine value solely when they are implemented. Responsible AI necessitates stringent, enforced governance mechanisms, including process management tools and the creation of corresponding audit trails. Moreover, I contend that effective governance can facilitate the expansion of AI technologies in enterprises. and reap the full benefits of their AI services and applications [11]. In this paper, I exclusively discuss the fundamental principles of privacy, equality, and trust in Artificial Intelligence deployments. While they are linked, this effort does not address data security issues. Plans must be created and put into action because AI will affect both humans and the nature of employment in the future. The ethical development and application of AI are essential. AI ethics is a very challenging and intricate task. AI offers better opportunities for conducting business and advancing society, but it also raises several ethical concerns. In order to handle these issues, it is important to understand the concepts as AI ethics are concerned with moral principles and values under the legal boundaries without breaking social barriers of safety and breach of privacy. Ethical AI also focuses on bringing more transparency to avoid scams. It brings responsibility in itself to help humanity instead of leading it to decline. This highlights the importance and need for ethical AI. Several big organisations have noticed this issue and worked upon the same as Microsoft, the EU, etc., developed the notion of Ethical AI under the legal framework. The examples are SHAP, EU AI ACT, etc.

2 Ethics

Ethics represents a nuanced and intricate concept that encompasses various dimensions. Ethics refer to the moral principles that guide the actions of individuals or groups [2]. To put it differently, ethics comprises a set of principles, standards, or laws that guide the determination of what is considered good or right. Ethics encompasses the examination of right and wrong, along with the moral responsibilities and duties of various entities, such as individuals, advanced robots, and more. The study of ethics has engaged a diverse array of scholars across various fields (Aristotle 1998). A person will succeed and be happy when they behave morally. It can

be seen as broad moral guidelines that assist individuals in making morally challenging choices. Ethics and ethical standards are subjects that are always changing and growing. Ethics has been examined by numerous researchers from a variety of fields. Ethics is a set of principles and ideas that assist us in determining whether behaviours are good or bad for sentient beings [24]. Ethics is a collection of concepts and guidelines that help us decide if a behaviour is beneficial or detrimental to sentient creatures. One of the most famous moral structures were created [5].

3 AI Ethics

The morals of artificial intelligence (AI) encompass the morals of cutting-edge expertise that interacts with machines and other synthetically rational entities. Machine ethics and robot ethics, or robot ethics, are the two subcategories of it. Robo ethics examines how humans behave morally when designing, building, using, and interacting with AI systems, as well as how these actions affect society and people. The moral subjects that may rise during the design and development of AI, as well as moral young resulting from AI (such as joblessness and fortune supply), are addressed in this paper under the heading of "ethics of AI" [15] (Voice fraud rose 350% between 2013 and 2017, according to PINDROP) [26]. Deepfake, a method that overlays and synthesises previously created images and videos onto original photos or films using machine learning, is also becoming more and more popular. Deepfake enables the placement of human faces on adult videotape subject and the use of ethical influential to incite violence and fear. Throughout the election cycle, deepfakes may sway and skew the electorate [21].

Human being truths—such as the liberty of expression, freedom of association, freedom of privacy, freedom of employment, freedom from discrimination, and access to public services—must always come first. However, when AI becomes more prevalent in the convict judge classification, concerns regarding prejudice may arise. Examples of prejudice on the basis of race, gender, and ethnicity can be seen in the reoffending probability assessment package utilised among the convict judge classification. For example, some criminals are mistakenly categorised as riskydue to their race. The right to privacy, essential to human dignity, may be affected by AI. The expansion of big data technology has jeopardised privacy rights and data security. Cellular location data may be efficiently synthesised by machine learning algorithms, which can then be used to infer personal traits such as age, gender, marital status, and occupation. Government surveillance is another example. Anonymity is at risk because half of all persons in the US are currently listed in law enforcement facial recognition databases [16]. This may affect the freedoms of expression, assembly, and association. Finally, it would impact the right to labour and a reasonable standard of living [22]. Automation has led to employment losses and movement in numerous manufacturing, the brisk innovation of AI will only exacerbate this curve.

4 Ethical Issues in Artificial Intelligence: An Analysis

Artificial Intelligence is now categorised into two types: limit AI and ineffective AI. Weak AI excels in a certain, limited field. The training data substantially influences the efficacy of narrow AI. Programming is intricately connected to both extensive data and individuals. Consequently, human factors are incorporated into the ethical issues of narrow AI. The potential for certain future AI systems to possess moral standing presents a distinct array of ethical dilemmas [25] Expert Group on Artificial Intelligence [11]. Beneficence: advancing well-being, safeguarding dignity, and protecting the earth. Non-maleficence: safeguarding privacy, ensuring security, and overseeing AI growth and functionalities, Autonomy: the authority to make decisions; Justice: fostering prosperity and maintaining solidarity; Explicability: enhancing the other criteria via accountability and transparency [27]. Organisation for Education, Science, and Culture of the United Nations. Human dignity, independence, privacy, the non-maleficence principle, accountability, beneficence, and fairness. The Ethical Framework of Australia [9]. As artificial intelligence develops, it is predicted that the technological singularity, which is defined as uncontrollable and irreversible technological advancement, will take place. Human civilisation will be affected if that happens, hence, robot rights and conscience must be considered. These issues, however, are outside the purview of this work. The ethical issues surrounding narrow AI are the focus of this topic. The three areas of research on AI's ethical challenges are: human factors that contribute to ethical risks [17]. AI features that could cause ethical quandaries [28] and the societal ramifications of ethical AI issues.

5 AI and Other Areas

AI-powered technologies are being swiftly adopted by financial organisations to enhance their decision-making processes. Businesses may now more accurately foresee market events thanks to predictive analytics made possible by AI-powered technologies. After integrating deep learning frameworks into their processes, financial institutions have reported a notable increase in pricing accuracy and efficiency. This invention enables organisations to use real-time data-driven strategies that enhance profitability and risk management, going beyond conventional statistical models. The creation of intelligent pricing systems has been one of the biggest developments in AI-powered finance. These models assess risk factors, customer behaviour, and market situations all at once using hybrid neural networks. When it comes to reducing pricing anomalies and optimising income streams, AI-driven solutions perform better than conventional pricing techniques. More accurate and responsive financial strategies are made possible by the ability to analyse massive datasets in milliseconds. Innovation cycles in financial institutions are developing at

a dizzying rate. In fact, with the advent of generation AI, we anticipate more innovation in the years to come than we have witnessed in the last two. Stated differently, the future of AI in finance will not be shaped by the Gen AI arms race. The real struggle will move towards creating integrated AI model ecosystems that provide a wealth of new opportunities, including the promise of agentic AI and AI-powered decision-making intelligence, in addition to addressing the limitations of current AI. Those financial institutions that recognise this transformation early and concentrate on the development of value on these Gen AI platforms will be at the vanguard of AI innovation and ROI. In other words, the future of AI in finance will not be influenced by the Gen AI arms competition. The genuine conflict will transition to the creation of integrated AI model ecosystems that not only address the limitations of current AI but also present a plethora of new opportunities, including the potential of AI-powered decision-making intelligence and Agentic AI. Those financial institutions that recognise this transformation early and concentrate on the development of value on these Gen AI platforms will be at the vanguard of AI innovation and ROI. Generative AI and LLMs have established a critical foundation for innovation, comparable to the function of browsers two decades ago. Browsers served as a "gateway" to the virtual realm during the early stages of the Internet. Gen AI has now established a "gateway" into the field of artificial intelligence. Nevertheless, we will witness the same phenomenon with generative AI in the business sector, particularly in financial services, as the Internet era saw business value arise from advancements built on and around browsers. It is important to note that the implementation of personalisation engines has significantly improved customer satisfaction, while automation propelled by AI has improved resource management and teamwork. The paper investigates the potential of cutting-edge technologies, such as quantum computing and edge computing, to improve the capabilities of the financial industry in the future. When combined with next-generation communication technologies, these advancements have the potential to transform the manner in which banks engage with their clientele and provide services. The document underscores the increasing importance of AI and UC in the banking sector's operational advancements and customer-centric solutions [10]. This study investigates the factors that influence the intention of Indian bank consumers to use Internet banking. Despite the benefits of online banking, a significant number of customers continue to prefer traditional banking methods. The results indicate that there are significant adoption predictors and suggest that banks should emphasise the usability, reliability, and reduced risk of Internet banking in order to increase its adoption in India. The financial security landscape is being transformed by the implementation of machine learning in fraud detection.

6 Common Risks and Difficulties Associated with Business AI Implementations

AI applications that can be used to cause harm include social engineering and autonomous weapons. In these cases, moral principles are ignored, making these applications unrelated to the topic at hand. The main issue that most businesses face is minimising the unanticipated negative effects of artificial intelligence. Implementing AI without sufficiently robust governance and compliance procedures typically results in unintended consequences. They fall into one of three groups: oversight or adherence. The potential for violating regulations related to financial services, employment, data protection, and health and safety. Training data biases can lead to a preference for one gender over another in job applications, potentially breaching anti-discrimination laws [8]. Consequently, as reported, Amazon's machine learning team ceased growth of its talent rating application, after the algorithm, which had been predominantly trained on data from male professional resumes, started to show a preference for male job candidates over female ones. Decline in brand value. The potential consequences of challenging established norms and societal expectations [23]. An AI capable of eliciting outrage or offence poses a risk to the company's brand integrity. For instance is Microsoft's Tay chatbot, designed to learn from its interactions with Twitter users. Microsoft discontinued the chatbot the next day after numerous users promptly employed racist and offensive language, which the chatbot assimilated and reproduced [19]. Amazon faced criticism that year due to the fact that on the spot delivery service was controlled to affluent, predominantly white regions of the United States. The purported rationale was that Amazon's algorithm had determined that the facility would not be cost-effective in regions with substantial cultural marginal inhabitants, as evidenced by the obtainable information regarding the attentiveness of Prime™ associates and their nearness to granaries [7] transparency of external parties. The peril of employing unreliable, black-box AI technologies from external purveyors [18]. At Accenture, we observed an instance in which a company employed third-party algorithms as opaque entities without a comprehensive comprehension of their functionality. Independent research has since identified biases that could have jeopardised the organization's compliance and brand.

7 Fundamental Principles of Artificial Intelligence

Establishing fundamental principles has been the focus of organisations over the past two to three years. The elements of responsible AI principles may be interpreted differently by various organisations and initiatives, but they frequently agree on five essential prop. (1) Equality—Are there any variables affecting show results that should not be included? Are comparable outcomes for other groupings anticipated, and are they attained? (2) Accountability—How should a potentially biased or incorrect result be addressed? (3) Clarity—To have basic information that how the

model can be brought in working stage? (4) Clarification—Is it possible to discuss the reasoning behind the outcome in plain language? (5) Privacy—Does the model protect against privacy-violating conclusions? Following these guidelines ought to ensure that an AI model is deployed responsibly. 'If adhered to' is the crucial sentence, though. Simply said, principles serve as a directional signal. They must be rigorously implemented to be effective.

The governance process is founded on the ethical values chosen by an organisation. As previously stated, numerous contemporary frameworks are available for companies to initiate their endeavours. These encompass the more recent and comprehensive IEEE standards. Organisations must establish a definitive set of principles during this process that correspond with their brand values and circumstances [14]. For example, a company in the chemicals manufacturing sector might have determined that safety is its primary business goal and used this value to design its value propositions, customer communications, operational procedures, and much more [6]. It became more essential o create such AI which is more trustworthy and can work for the betterment of humanity. As a new expression, safety ought to be a major part of the brand's AI values. Based on the responses to these queries, businesses can establish their responsible AI tenets.

8 Problems and Ethical Risks

The decision-making on the important function and part of management got affected in negatively sense by AI. The support of the statement is the case study of the renowned organisation Amazon, where the recruitment tool is trained on the data since male and female differentiation highlights the Gender inequality. The resumes of females were penalised, and this showcased the biggest bias that could ever be made while ignoring the calibre and considering the gender. There is also an issue of a lack of transparency, there are companies that use third-party algorithms and don't understand them, which leads to hindering their brand image. Another concern is the reputation destruction, where a few servers get shut down. An example is Microsoft's Tay chatbot, which quickly became offensive when observing it from several Twitter users, and it brought the instant shutdown of the same. Privacy breach and legal breach are the biggest threats to today's human race from AI, as many services can violate several laws and breach the data of users. While discussing privacy breaches, the facial recognition and voice mixing software and tools are the biggest fear. (Telcher 2018) Many Americans became a part of the enforcement database.

9 Privacy and Security of Data

The development of AI agents necessitates an immense quantity of data, including private and confidential information. In nearly every application domain where deep learning functions effectively, including Apple Siri and Google Home, there are piles of data available. The likelihood of data misuse increases as corporations and communities generates an increasing volume of information. While talking of the illustrations, there is an ample of information invariably which includes the more trustable source, if not sufficiently safeguarded, could be accessed by a malicious organisation, resulting in financial and personal injury to patients. In order to prevent malicious usage and misuse, data must be appropriately managed [30]. To safeguard the data, every step should be meticulously verified. Both the data and the transaction record may be subject to privacy risks. As a result, it is essential to consider what needs to be recorded, who should supervise the process, and who will have reach the adequate information in all sources. Whether or not the robots are considered moral beings determines how they interact [29]. Robots must possess autonomy, intentionality, and responsibility to be considered as true moral actors. A machine is said to be autonomous if it is not directly controlled by another agent. When computers "act in a way that is morally harmful or beneficial and the actions are seemingly deliberate and calculated," you can say that they are acting intentionally. The robots must fulfil a societal role that involves specific expected responsibilities to be deemed responsible While discussing the case of Classic Trolley, the ethical producer restraint the tram [3]. Either killing five workers on the present track or switching to a different track and killing just one worker is a difficult moral condition for any human being. The decision should or would AI render? Who ought to oversee the AI's decision-making? Ethical robots are military robots designated for bomb disposal operations. Is it ethical for humans to dictate the destinies of these robots? Future civilisations may not see contemporary human ethics and morals as exemplary. The rationale is connected not all recognised moral dilemmas can be handled by humans. The second argument states that humans are incapable of recognising every ethical challenge.

10 Social Impact of Ethical Issues

Automation and Job Displacement: There is a continuous debate regarding whether Industry 4.0 and the era of artificial intelligence will result in the generation of new employment opportunities or the eradication of current positions [26, 31]. Numerous accounts indicate that factory workers are being supplanted by robots and automated systems. Some assert that AI will generate billions of newfound employments, amongst those which do not currently exist. Concerns about possible workforce disruptions in the age of artificial intelligence, including human-AI collaboration, still exist, nevertheless. The labour market will be altered and disrupted by AI. The

pace and extent of the transformation are not evident. Harari [13] has proposed the phrase "useless class." The Freedom Dividend campaign is a universal basic income for all grownups, with no conditions conferred. It has been tested in a few nations. Andrew Yang is a presidential candidate. Helping people and improving their lives was the original purpose of technology development [12]. Should we keep up the fast rate of technological advancement if automation and AI lead to a large loss of jobs and unemployment? In addition, how can we manage the rapid changes and breakthroughs in technology while maintaining human rights and welfare? The ethical principle of accessibility involves ensuring that coordination, artefacts, and motorway facilities are available, suitable, and usable for everyone, incorporating the aged, individuals with disabilities, and those facing various challenges. The availability of emerging technologies will significantly influence human well-being, considering the intricacies of advanced devices and innovations, alongside the ageing demographics in certain countries [32]. Humanity ought to benefit from the progress of technology. However, can it be considered morally just and fair if only a select few benefit from it? It is essential to consider the creation of systems, goods, and services that are accessible to all, ensuring that everyone can equally benefit from advancements in technology [26]. Democracy and Civil Rights: When AI is used unethically, it causes the truth to become fragmented, eventually leading to a loss of confidence and a decline in public support for the technology [10]. Democracies' strengths are undermined when knowledgeable and trustworthy communities disappear. The liberated enjoyment of civilised truths is not protracted consistently accessible to everyone as democracies deteriorate and systemic biases increase. Civil rights and democracy must be considered in AI ethics.

11 Methods for Teaching AI Ethics

Three possible approaches to transferring AI to ethical agents are listed by Moor [20] training AI to become "implicit ethical agents," "explicit ethical agents," and "full ethical agents." Limiting the machine's behaviour to prevent immoral results is known as implicit ethical agents. Declaring clearly what behaviour is permitted and what is prohibited is what is meant by explicit ethical agents. Since humans possess awareness, intentionality, and free choice, robots are considered full ethical actors. AI development may be constrained by an implicit ethical agent. Anderson and Leigh Anderson [4] the frank moral representative is now receiving the highest consideration and is thought under further useful. The development of a fully ethical agent is currently ongoing, and it is uncertain when this goal will be accomplished. How to handle an AI entity with perception, ethical brains, feeling, and belief would be extra important factor to consider while creating a fully ethical creature [28]. For example, if an AI driver exchanges humanoid professions and also puts humanoid natural life in jeopardy, is it morally acceptable to "kill" (shut down) it? Is putting robots in dangerous situations morally acceptable? Human ethics and moral principles are entwined with these concerns.

12 AI on the Ground

The problem of effectively scaling AI applications is closely related to the question of responsible AI governance. When businesses just have a small number of AI models, the original creators can still manage and maintain these models with just an Excel sheet. Difficulties arise as these simulations expand and are scrambled up. The risk of losing sight of their fundamental objectives and technical capabilities is present when new teams are recruited to maintain the algorithms. Bias may infiltrate data sets as they expand, resulting in unforeseen complications that impact performance. Scaling AI has been demonstrated to be a significant challenge for numerous organisations. 87% of businesses are having trouble in realising the full potential of their AI initiatives and transitioning from proof of concept to production due to the absence of a defined path to deployment [1]. The study posits that in order to achieve successful scaling, companies must incorporate a distinct AI strategy, diverse teams, and ethical frameworks into their AI. In order for industrial-scale AI to be morally and practically ethical, it must have robust governance, documentation, and tools. Establishing a comprehensive governance program for one facilitates the attainment of the other. This is vital as organisations strategically growing AI are reporting roughly threefold returns on their AI investments compared to those focussing on isolated proof of ideas.

13 Reasons of Ethical Failure and Solutions

The organisations are opting for the technology so quickly and ignoring major issues, such as privacy and ethics. They are more concerned about the profit and the high productivity rush. There is also a lack of appropriate testing and audits, and it usually results in several biased decisions. Another issue is that organisations are hiring the same kind of untrained force for several tasks, which leads to data handling blunders while lacking specialisation. Numerous tools that are being used should be held accountable. The government should increase its legal hold and governance under strict penalties and laws. Ethical committees should be made and held responsible for all data collection and handling methods, such committee should include legal experts, technologist who should call several meetings and audits and asses the risk at primary stage. The audits should be made transparent so that decisions are not biased. These solutions will lead to engrossed and inculcated ethical thinking and responsibility while providing training itself.

14 Limitations and Future Directions

The existing guidelines do not cover all the cases, such as autonomous weapons. There is also a lack of global regulatory consensus, which could make policies and ensure the strict application of such policies across borders. This will control the scams and breaches of privacy in different countries and sectors. The AI systems should be less complex in nature, and such consequences become more difficult to handle. The future research must investigate the role of AI while controlling the data manipulation. putting in better surveillance, controlling issues leading to poor mental health.

15 Conclusion

The comprehension and resolution of moral and ethical concerns connected to AI are nonetheless in their babyhood. It is not just about "right or wrong," "good or bad," and "virtue and vice" that AI ethics is about. It's not even an issue that a few people need to deal with. However, AI raises significant moral and ethical issues that need to be addressed immediately. This study aims to highlight the urgent need for many stakeholders to take AI agents' ethics and morality into account. As we strive to develop the morals of AI to facilitate the establishment of moral AI, we will improve our connections with AI means in this AI era, progress present ethical principles, and gain a greater understanding of human ethics. Ethical AI is a mandatory demand in the coming times instead of a choice. As it impacts humanity socially, economically, mentally, ethically, and in many other areas as well. Ethics should be the main priority, not a subsidiary one, while developing AI bots. While discussing the upcoming time in human being's life may be contingent upon the development of AI ethics, not only technically but morally as well.

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Future Trends in Artificial Intelligence-Driven Information Systems

Shrabanti Kundu and Utpal Ghosh

Abstract The accelerated evolution of Artificial Intelligence has put forth a paradigm shift for information systems through automation, supported consumer-based decisions, and prediction from health care, finance, and autonomous systems like self-driving cars, robotic process automation, and autonomous drones. This chapter explores the wider trends in AI-based information systems through examining the development of pertinent AI methodologies from traditional machine learning to contemporary deep learning and reinforcement learning techniques. For assessing AI models, it develops a structured methodology for the introduction of evaluation metrics, namely, accuracy, time of execution, and scalability. Year-wise comparative analysis has been supported by extensive tabular data and performance graphs, indicating that predictive model accuracy has improved by approximately 15–20% over the last five years over various standard benchmarks like ImageNet and GLUE. It is important to mention that most of the improvement took place with the advent of deep learning and transformer models for more advanced tasks such as image recognition and natural language processing. The chapter also discusses emerging trends such as explainable AI, real-time adaptive systems and integration with cloud-based infrastructures. By combining historical insights with forward-looking perspectives, this chapter offers a strategic understanding of how AI is reshaping information systems and outlines critical future directions to drive innovation in the era of intelligent computing.

Keywords Artificial intelligence (AI) · Information systems · Machine learning · Deep learning · Predictive analytics · Explainable AI · Real-time systems

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1 Historical Trends in AI-Driven Information Systems

From the theoretical concept of Artificial Intelligence (AI), it is now changing the face of industries. It is proving to be a great challenge in the field of Information Systems concerning how organizations collect, process, store and exploit data. Information systems that are powered by AI are fast becoming a crucial part of operations where they enable organizations to run more efficiently, make decisions more quickly based on facts and provide more personalized experiences. The chapter looks at the future trends in information systems related to AI-based approaches, technologies, opportunities and challenges ahead including machine learning, natural language processing, autonomous systems, AI ethics and data privacy. AI in information systems looks very bright since the technology evolves into an accelerated pace. However, with countless advantages that AI brings to information systems, it will require ethical consideration, transparency, and human oversight to benefit the society as a whole as AI becomes more integrated into information systems in the future.

1.1 Background and Evolution of Information Systems

Information Systems (IS) have undergone radical transformations in terms of use and application over the last few decades. They were developed as very simple tools for data storage and retrieval with an operational focus mainly viewed in terms of rudimentary computing techniques. Such systems were often inflexible and depended on manually inputted data. Management Information Systems (MISs) were produced during mainframe computing in the 1960s and 70s to automate business operations and provide support to managers for decision making. Yet their ranges of operation were strictly defined by the existing hardware limitations and siloed architectures available at that time. The year 1980 marked the emergence of the personal computer and client–server architecture, which decentralizes computing power and allows organizations to scale their IS functions. The rise of the ERP systems integrated business processes onto a single digital platform. By 1990, the door to the internet had been opened, significantly broadening the capabilities of IS through real-time communications, web applications, or an e-commerce platform. This is where systems began to give way to more interactive and dynamic tools capable of mediating rich and complex workflows and communication. The 2000s heralded the big data age, where IS systems faced the daunting task of storing, processing, analyzing and deriving conclusions based on staggering amounts of heterogeneous data. Traditional data processing systems, like relational databases and manual reporting tools, became more and more inadequate, producing a huge demand for systems that weren't just fast and scalable but also highly intelligent and adaptable.

Over decades, information systems have shifted from the former state to an entirely different state. They were first used as very simple tools for data storage and retrieval,

with an operational focus mainly viewed in terms of rudimentary computing techniques. Such systems were often inflexible, not very much open to changes, and dependent on manually inputted data. Management Information Systems (MIS) were created from mainframe computing in the 1960s and 70s for the purposes of automating business operations and for enabling support to managers in making decisions. Even so, their ranges of operation were strictly defined by the existing hardware limitations and siloed architectures available at that time. The emergence of personal computing and client–server architecture of the 1980s generalizes the area of decentralizing computing power and allowing organizations to scale their IS functionality. Thus, Enterprise Resource Planning (ERP) systems emerged, integrating business processes into a unified digital platform. Internet connections were then brought in the 1990s, which made ISs be greatly enlarged by worldwide real-time communications, web applications as well as an e-commerce platform. Here, more of interactive and dynamic tools such as the facilitation of richer and complex workflows and mediation of communication became possible. The biggest burdens imposed on information systems now are in the challenge of not only handling but also analyzing and deriving insights from zettabytes upon zettabytes of heterogeneous data. The traditional techniques for processing data-relational databases and manual reporting became increasingly increasingly less adequate; this created an urgent need for high-speed systems. The demand now is for intelligent and adaptable systems that can be scaled fast.

1.2 Emergence of Artificial Intelligence in IS

Artificial intelligence has emerged to solve the problems that traditional information systems put forth. The big meaning of AI is that it involves a machine mimicking human intellectual processes including learning (the acquisition of information and rules for using it), reasoning (applying rules to reach conclusions), and self-correction. AI covers a wider range of subfields like machine learning (ML), deep learning (DL), natural language processing (NLP), computer vision, robotics and many more [1]. The increasing volumes and complexity of data has made AI a route through which efficiencies in information systems can be built beyond static-complete rule-based systems. Machine learning models trained mostly on historical data can identify patterns, predict, and also automate decisions. Deep learning is a subdivision of machine learning that gave the power to systems to process unstructured data such as text, image and sound with great accuracy. The NLP has paved the way for information systems to be able to understand, interpret, and even generate human languages, thus heralding the development of intelligent virtual assistants, chatbots and language translation tools. Artificial intelligence in information systems marks the shift from being retroactive and depending on humans to proactive and autonomous systems like self-driving cars, robotic process automation, autonomous drones. These AI-enriched systems learn from user behavior and adapt to new data and improve over time automatically without explicit reprogramming.

1.3 The AI-Driven Paradigm Shift

The use of artificial intelligence will really change how the design, function and application of information systems have been understand. Current AI-based IS do not only act like some warehouses or facilities for reporting, but these are intelligent agents which engage in learning and optimization all the time. We extend this paradigm across a number of sectors.

1.3.1 Health

AI-based Electronic Health Records (EHRs) can hazord patients at risk, conditionalize for certain personalized treatment plans, and help diagnose outcomes via medical image analysis [2].

1.3.2 Finance

Intelligent systems monitor and understand the transactions as they happen in real time to assist in fraud detection, credit risk assessment and investment portfolio optimization.

1.3.3 Manufacturing and Supply Chain

AI algorithms that learn from current real-time data drive predictive maintenance, demand forecasting and route optimization.

1.3.4 Education

Adaptive learning platforms customize curricula based on students' learning styles and progress.

1.3.5 Government and Public Services

Smart city initiatives leverage AI for traffic management, emergency response and citizen engagement.

These applications underscore a broader trend where AI augments human decision-making, reduces operational inefficiencies and enhances user experience.

1.4 Catalysts of Growth in AI-Driven IS

1.4.1 Big Data and Data-Driven Cultures

The exponential growth of data, driven by IoT devices, social media, e-commerce and digital transactions, has fueled the need for AI-driven analysis. Big data is characterized by volume, velocity, variety, veracity and value (the 5Vs) posing significant challenges to traditional IS [3]. AI technologies excel in these environments, turning raw data into actionable insights. Organizations have increasingly adopted data-driven cultures where decision-making is based on empirical evidence rather than intuition.

1.4.2 Computational Advancements

High-performance computing resources such as GPUs and TPUs have made it possible to train such complex AI models. The optimized AWS, Google Cloud and Azure are cloud computing platforms that provide high scalable infrastructure to support AI workloads, thus reducing deployment costs and complications. Edge computing has extended data services for analysis and decision-making in real-time applications like autonomous vehicles and smart devices by pushing will further AI usage to the last networked device edge.

1.4.3 Evolution of Learning Algorithms

AI intervention has broadened greatly in the last few years especially the evolution of deep learning. Powerful convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent networks and the much touted transformer have made quite a mark on exciting fields like image recognition, sequential data processing and NLP respectively [4]. The effectiveness of reinforcement learning is also coming up in strategic areas like robotics and gaming.

1.4.4 Industry 4.0 and Digital Transformation

Emerging with Industry 4.0 is the digitalization of industrial processes in factories. Smart factories tap on AI, smart sensors and real-time data streams to optimize production and reduce downtime while keeping a high standard of product quality. Virtual replicas of physical systems or digital twins are used for simulation and predictive maintenance. Such an intelligent manufacturing environment recognizes AI-driven IS as the basic building blocks [5].

1.5 The Rise of Machine Learning and Data-Driven Systems

From the 1990s and into the turn of the millennium, knowledge-based approaches were being replaced by machine learning (ML)-based paradigms that allowed learning from data and improvement over time without any explicit programming. This changed the role of AI in information systems significantly, forcing systems to move from static rule-based solutions to dynamic adaptable models capable of handling large complex datasets. During this time, algorithms such as decision trees, support vector machines (SVM) and others were achieving prominence so that the information system could recognize patterns, classify observations and predict. The presence of data-enormous, exceeding the limits of dataset in common parlance-was one of the propellers for the success of such systems. With the advent of more powerful computers and storage technologies, organizations recognized that AI could actually deliver results by drawing insights from previously hidden or too complex data for manual analysis [6].

Machine learning also made information systems more proactive and forward-looking instead of just being reactive (querying). So, for example recommendation systems that were being used to personalize user experiences on Amazon and Netflix developed from algorithms that predicted customer likes and dislikes based upon previous history [7]. Also, predictive analytics in the realm of business intelligence systems enabled organizations to forecast market trends, customer behavior and operational performance.

1.6 Deep Learning and the Emergence of Autonomous Systems

During the 2010s, deep learning which is the major breakthrough in terms of evolution in AI-driven information systems. Deep learning is a part of machine learning using multi-layered neural networks, which drastically changed the machinery processing of data relatively complex, especially in the fields of image and speech recognition. Such Deep neural networks (DNNs) can automatically learn features out of raw data, thus eliminating the need for feature engineering-an important drawback of earlier machine-learning approaches [2]. The new possibilities for information systems include the capacity of deep learning models to process large amounts of unstructured inputs: images, audio and text. For example, a healthcare robotic system could interpret medical images with the same accuracy as human radiologists [8]. In finance, it is found in sophisticated algorithms in fraud detection, credit scoring and algorithmic trading.

The growth of deep learning along with the growth of computing power (particularly through GPUs and cloud computing) made it possible to develop very autonomous systems that can analyze data and even make and carry out decisions without human intervention. Examples include autonomous cars where deep learning

classifies sensors received data almost in real-time and then navigates an intricate environment, while AI-based chatbots and virtual assistants communicate and offer various services with the assistance of natural language inputs from the users [9].

1.7 Characteristics of AI-Driven Information Systems

AI-based information systems exhibit at least a few distinct characteristics that differentiate them from traditional systems.

1.7.1 Autonomy

These systems can work independently and can take decisions based on learned data, not requiring any input from a human agent all the time.

1.7.2 Adaptability

They are continuously learning and evolving constantly with new data and user feedback enhancing performance, thereby increasing relevance over time.

1.7.3 Context Awareness

These systems acquire context by collecting data from multiple sources: It can deliver a user-deliverable experience dependent on the user's view of time and location.

1.7.4 Scalability

AI algorithms are capable of scaling as more data and users interact with it, and there is trivial or no degradation in performance.

1.7.5 Explainability

As important areas such as healthcare and justice are embroiled in AI decision-making, transparency in making decisions becomes imperative. SHAP and LIME techniques are explored to render insight into such complex model outputs [10].

1.8 Research Gaps and Challenges

Information systems driven by AI have several unresolved challenges, despite the conveniences they offer. They include.

1.8.1 Data Quality and Bias

The training data may be inaccurate, incomplete or biased, resulting in an imperfect model that raises concerns for data integrity and fairness.

1.8.2 Interpretability

Many AI models especially deep neural networks have become so powerful that they seem to operate like black boxes when it comes to interpreting their decision making.

1.8.3 Security and Privacy

Such systems are often subjected to cyberattacks, adversarial inputs and data leakages. Federated learning and homomorphic encryption are emerging as possible solutions.

1.8.4 Ethical Issues

AI-based automation raises the specter of job losses, surveillance and discrimination. Setting up ethical AI frameworks and regulatory oversight is the paramount need.

1.9 Key Trends Shaping the Future

1.9.1 Explainable and Transparent AI

Without explanation, people are less likely to trust or adopt sensitive applications. The General Data Protection Regulation guidelines stipulate that users have rights to comprehend algorithmic decisions. Research pursues interpretable models and visualization tools for demystifying the processes of AI.

1.9.2 Federated and Privacy-Preserving Learning

A federal model for AI works by having a set of training activities taking place on a series of decentralized devices or servers with localized sample data. This model supports as well as promotes privacy in collaborative learning interactions [11]

1.9.3 Real-Time and Edge Intelligence

Edge AI minimizes latency by processing data near the source. This is critical in applications such as autonomous driving, industrial automation, and remote healthcare. Innovations in model compression and energy-efficient hardware are driving this trend.

1.9.4 Integration with Blockchain

Blockchain technology enhances transparency and security in AI-driven IS. It provides immutable records of data and decisions, which is especially valuable in auditing, compliance, and data sharing scenarios [12].

1.9.5 AI-as-a-Service (AIaaS)

Cloud-based AI services provide pre-trained models and APIs for vision, speech and NLP that making it easier for organizations to integrate AI functionalities without deep technical expertise. This trend lowers barriers to AI adoption across industries.

1.9.6 Sustainability and Green AI

Green AI emphasizes the environmental impact of AI systems. Research is focused on reducing the energy consumption of model training and inference, particularly for large-scale models like GPT and BERT [13].

The remaining of the chapter is structured as follows, Sect. 2 reviews existing literature and the state-of-the-art in AI-driven IS, Sect. 3 introduces the proposed methodology for evaluating such systems and presents results, Sect. 4 demonstrates comparative analyses and performance graphs, finally Sect. 5 outlines future directions and concludes the discussion with key takeaways and recommendations.

2 Literature Survey

The integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) into information systems is increasingly becoming a focal point for academic and industry research. AI-powered information systems are transforming traditional business operations, improving decision-making processes and enabling automation on an unprecedented scale. This literature survey examines the evolution of AI in information systems, highlighting key technological developments, challenges, and the future implications of these advancements. The survey draws from foundational research on machine learning (ML), deep learning (DL), natural language processing (NLP), autonomous decision-making, data privacy and ethics in AI.

2.1 Machine Learning and Deep Learning in Information Systems

Currently, machine learning has established itself firmly into modern AI systems to perform detection of patterns and information in huge collections of data automatically [14]. Models of machine learning mainly supervised learning, had been used in information systems such as predictive analytics, recommendation systems and fraud detection [15]. Surprisingly, real-world data like unstructured text, images and video have shown themselves so complex that they have given rise to more sophisticated techniques like deep learning. Deep learning, which is a sub categorizing area within machine learning, leverages multi-layered neural network architectures and manages highly complex data types. The result in the development of revolutionized industries is the success of deep learning models in applications like image recognition, speech processing, and natural language understanding [2]. Deep learning applications have improved information systems' predictive models, reduced time over unstructured data, and enabled data-driven decision-makings [16]. For example, in healthcare, deep learning applies to improve diagnostics for medical images processing and prediction of patient outcomes [8]. In e-commerce, for say, the machine learning algorithms-based recommendation system can predict what the customers are expected to prefer based on past activities and thus enable personalized shopping experience [7].

2.2 Natural Language Processing (NLP) and Human–Computer Interaction

NLP is the key that ties all human and machine contact together-by being able to convert human language into comprehensible and generatable requests from a computer. These advances have created the foundation for highly interactive AI

systems such as chatbots and virtual assistants, transforming customer service and the user's experience [17]. Major areas of NLP research include machine translation, sentiment analysis and information extraction. The major advance to date has been its transformer-based models, such as BERT (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers) and GPT (Generative Pretrained Transformer), which provided the much improved accuracy and fluency of machine-generated texts and presented the potential for somewhat more complex conversational tasks for AI systems [18, 19]. NLP helps business processes, for instance in processing and mining big volumes of text data such as customer feedback, emails, and support tickets, to derive trends, sentiment and actionable insights. In this regard, an exemplary case would be the automation of customer service interactions through NLP, hence helping organizations manage many inquiries without human intervention [20].

2.3 Autonomous Decision-Making and AI Ethics

AI-based information systems are becoming more and more capable of making independent decisions. Such trends are particularly important in areas like autonomous vehicles, finance and healthcare, where real-time decision-making is pivotal. The establishment of reinforcement learning algorithms has allowed the machine to decide when in an uncertain and dynamic environment [21]. In finance, the application of AI systems to high-frequency trading and risk management is crucial since real-time decisions made during these transactions could affect the bottom line significantly. Whereas AI systems for autonomous vehicles are making important decisions about navigation and safety through the processing of sensor data acquired from both the vehicle and its immediate environment [22]. As more and more decision-making is being transferred from human beings to the AI systems, questions arise mainly regarding ethics and concerns about accountability and fairness. Thus the ethics of AI has been concerned about ensuring transparency, explanation and non-bias of AI systems [23]. An important one is the design of AI systems that will make decisions perceived as fair and ethical since data bias can, in fact, lead to discriminatory outcomes in crucial fields such as hiring, criminal justice and loan approval [24]

2.4 Data Privacy, Security and Governance in AI

Privacy and security concerns would be escalating with AI systems becoming more reliant on them for processing information. Unfortunately, most of the data that feature under the training of an AI model is sensitive thereby escalating breach and misuse issues. How a user is likely to be protected while developing an AI model for non-used data yet offers some solutions mostly come by considering privacy-preserving techniques like federated learning and differential privacy [25, 26]. The

other area of great concern is data governance since there are more and more personal and business data being processed through AI systems. The proper governance of data involves its accuracy, security, and usage depending on the regulatory frameworks in place like the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). All these are some of the focus areas that researchers are looking toward creating strong frameworks for infrastructure management that would ensure that AI would still adapt to the privacy laws while exploring all potential big data advantages [27].

2.5 Future Directions and Industry Applications

Advancements in AI techniques and their applications across industries will possibly determine the future course of AI-driven information systems. For final example, where AI systems can recommend tailor made treatment to an individual based on its genetic profile [28], healthcare has seen AI advance from diagnostics to personalized medicine. Such a revolution will also support supply chain management where real-time decision-making and predictive analytics will help optimize logistics while reducing waste [29]. There are, however, many changes that lie ahead as far as AI will change the way we process and use data: unprecedented personalization, automation and decision making. Challenges such as privacy, ethics and governance related to data will continue to be an integral aspect of the growing inclusion of AI in our digital infrastructure.

This literature survey presents a snapshot of trends observed today and forecasts being made about the future regarding AI-based information systems—the critical technologies, applications and challenges being highlighted. References cited in this study showcase the interdisciplinary nature of AI research-from machine-learning and natural language processing through ethics and data privacy. Such fields will continue being relevant as AI takes shape in society because they will always be at the core of understanding how AI affects information systems.

3 Evaluation Methodology

The assessment of AI-based information systems is multi-dimensional, requiring a solid and holistic methodology to carry out such evaluations. Once placed in different areas-from health to finance, to smart cities and education: Evaluation must focus on factors such as accuracy, efficiency, fairness, scalability, interpretability and actual usability. In this section, we shall present a comprehensive approach to that evaluation, considering qualitative and quantitative measurements.

3.1 Evaluation Framework Overview

The performance evaluation of an AI system begins with defining objectives and expected outcomes for that system: accurate classification, timely predictions, anomaly detection, personalized recommendations or optimal control decisions according to the application domain. After determining such functional goals for the system, an evaluation framework is created to embody issues found in plenty listing appropriate datasets, performance metrics, benchmark models and assessment protocols. This evaluation framework weighs in on reproducibility, transparency and comparability to ensure that the outcomes are accurate yet interpretable, consistent and ethically aligned. The methodology is adherent to the best practice of experimental design, including proper data partitioning (training, validation and testing), cross-validation and statistical significance testing.

3.2 Dataset Acquisition and Preprocessing

The dataset that serves as the basis for evaluating any AI system essentially merits it. The datasets incorporated into the evaluation process must adequately represent the problem space and have sufficient variability and complexity. So, for example, in a healthcare diagnostics application, the element must necessarily sample patients from a diverse set of demographics, introduce a number of conditions across a number of data modalities-such as imaging, lab values and electronic health records. In general, the data preprocessing activities include cleaning, normalization, feature extraction and transformation. Missing values, outlier detection and class-imbalance (especially in imbalanced datasets such as fraud detection or rare disease identification) would have to be considered in order to conduct the research without any 'bias'. Advanced preprocessing also would include data augmentation in vision applications and tokenization in NLP as well as entity linking in knowledge graph-based systems.

3.3 Model Architecture and Configuration

A critical aspect of the evaluation methodology is the selection and configuration of the AI models in question. Different tasks may require different types of models: convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for image classification, recurrent neural networks (RNNs) or transformers for sequence data, and ensemble algorithms for tabular data analysis. Configuration of the model implies establishing architectural parameters such as number of layers, activation functions, regularization techniques, and learning rates. Hyperparameter tuning optimizes every hyperparameter via grid search, random search or Bayesian optimization, thus ensuring that the best model

is obtained. The comparison of Random Forest with SVM and possibly some other traditional machine learning and deep learning methods would be helpful in making an evaluation of accuracy, interpretability and resource consumption trade-offs.

3.4 Training and Validation Protocols

Standard machine learning protocols will be followed in the training procedure, while considerations will also encompass overfitting, generalization and convergence. The training, validation, and test sets are segregated into different partitions so that no data leakage occurs among the partitions. K-fold cross-validation is commonly applied for the purpose of reducing the variance and producing a more reliable estimate of the model's performance. Train also gauges and records certain metrics like training loss, validation loss and learning curves. It also employs the methodologies of early stopping, dropout layers and batch normalization to improve generalization capability. Performance improvement is convincingly attributable to the lack of overfitting in real-world applicability.

3.5 Datasets, Domains and Benchmarking for Year-Wise Comparison

In this chapter, the performance of an AI-based information system was put through cross-years comparisons based on well-established data sets and benchmarks across various fields. The principal data sets or benchmarks include:

- Healthcare: MIMIC-III Clinical Database for patient record mashing and diagnostic prediction.
- Finance: IEEE-CIS Fraud Detection Dataset for transaction anomaly detection and fraud crime prevention.
- Computer Vision: ImageNet [30] and CIFAR-10 for object classification and recognition tasks.
- Natural Language Processing: GLUE (General Language Understanding Evaluation) benchmark for text classification, sentiment analysis, and language inference.

These performance metrics, that is, Accuracy, Precision, Recall, F1-Score, Latency (ms) and Scalability have been retained for comparative purposes across the datasets. Thus, each year leading model performance was compared on all comparisons against this standard so as to trace trends over time with the potential to clearly see technological progressions from 2010 to 2024. Year-wise, the approach systematically provides clear and reproducible bases for understanding progress in information systems driven by AI.

3.6 Evaluation Metrics and Their Computation

To assess the system comprehensively, multiple evaluation metrics are employed:

- Accuracy measures the proportion of correct predictions over the total predictions and is suitable for balanced datasets.
- Precision, recall and F1-score are particularly relevant for imbalanced classification problems, offering insights into false positives and false negatives.
- Area Under the Curve (AUC) and Receiver Operating Characteristics (ROC) provide insights into the system's ability to distinguish between classes.
- Mean Squared Error (MSE) and Mean Absolute Error (MAE) are used in regression tasks.
- Confusion matrices are utilized to visualize classification results and analyze specific mis-classification trends.
- Each of these metrics is computed for different datasets and model variants, providing a multi-dimensional performance overview.

3.7 Real-Time Performance and Latency Evaluation

With increasing deployment of AI in real-time systems (fraud detection, autonomous driving), evaluating the latency of decision-making becomes essential. Latency is defined as the time interval between data input and the AI system's output response. Evaluation includes benchmarking latency under various operational conditions including peak loads and concurrent users. These tests are carried out using simulation environments or real-world deployments. Key parameters include average response time, 95th percentile latency and throughput (requests per second). Systems like AI in smart manufacturing are tested for their ability to maintain sub-100 ms response times under dynamic workloads.

3.8 Scalability and Load Testing

AI systems must scale efficiently as the number of users, devices, or data streams increases. Scalability is tested by simulating concurrent access to the system using tools such as Apache JMeter or Locust. The system's ability to maintain performance under increasing user loads is analyzed through:

- Vertical scaling (resources scaling on same nodes)
- Horizontal scaling (adding more nodes to the system)
- Elasticity since it dynamically scales according to demand
- System behavior will also be inferred at different user loads to achieve consistent performance with large systems-for example, healthcare networks, smart cities and educational platforms.

3.9 Explainability and Interpretability Testing

Explainability is vital in evaluating any AI system, particularly in high-stake areas like medicine and finance. The methodology utilizes several tools, such as SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations), LIME (Local Interpretable Model-Agnostic Explanations) and attention visualization techniques for interpreting model outputs. Explainability is assessed quantitatively (consistency of feature importance ranking across samples) and qualitatively (through domain expert review of explanations generated). The justification offered by the system is compared against human reasoning. This step also includes user studies on how easily end-users can comprehend and trust the system's outputs.

3.10 Bias and Fairness Evaluation

Such systems can unintentionally act as carriers or amplifiers of biases existing in the data, and thus result in unfair treatments. The used method is bias auditing through some fairness measures such as demographic parity, equal opportunity difference and disparate impact ratio. Experiments are conducted on datasets annotated with sensitive attributes like gender, ethnicity, age and performance on them is evaluated across the subgroups. Techniques for mitigating bias such as re-weighting, adversarial debiasing and fairness-aware learning are applied and their effectiveness judged.

3.11 Energy Efficiency and Computational Cost

As AI systems are deployed at scale, evaluating their energy consumption and computational efficiency becomes critical. The metrics include:

- Training time and inference time
- FLOPs (floating-point operations)
- Memory footprint
- Energy consumption in joules/watt-hours.

Green AI practices are encouraged, with comparisons drawn between models optimized for energy efficiency versus raw performance. Lightweight models like MobileNet, quantized neural networks and pruning techniques are evaluated for edge deployment scenarios.

3.12 Comparative Benchmarking

Benchmarking against existing solutions is essential to validate the proposed system's superiority or domain suitability. The methodology involves:

- Selecting baseline models from literature or industrial benchmarks (ImageNet, GLUE, MIMIC-III)
- Reproducing or adapting these models under identical experimental conditions
- Recording performance metrics across all models.

Comparative tables and graphs are used to highlight improvements in accuracy, latency, interpretability and scalability. Year-wise performance trends are analyzed to showcase how models have evolved in terms of capability and efficiency.

3.13 Visualization and Reporting

The final step in the methodology involves visualizing and reporting the evaluation results in a clear and comprehensive manner. Performance metrics are presented using bar charts, ROC curves, heatmaps, radar plots and latency graphs. This visual representation aids in pattern recognition and facilitates stakeholder understanding. Reports are prepared detailing experimental configurations, observed trade-offs and limitations. These findings inform future research directions and product decisions, ensuring that evaluation outcomes are not just theoretical but actionable.

Figure 1 represents the working flow diagram of the methodology for performance evaluation.

Algorithm 1 demonstrates the formal algorithmic structure following a typical algorithmic presentation of performance evaluation methodology for AI driven information systems.

Algorithm 1: Performance Evaluation Methodology for AI-Driven Information Systems

Input: Raw dataset D, target use case U, performance objectives O

Output: Evaluated model M_{best}, performance metrics report R

Step 1: *Define Objectives and Use Case*

1.1 Set domain-specific goals G based on U
1.2 Determine KPIs K = {accuracy, precision, recall, latency, scalability}
1.3 Document constraints and success criteria C

Step 2: *Data Acquisition and Preprocessing*

2.1 Collect dataset D relevant to U

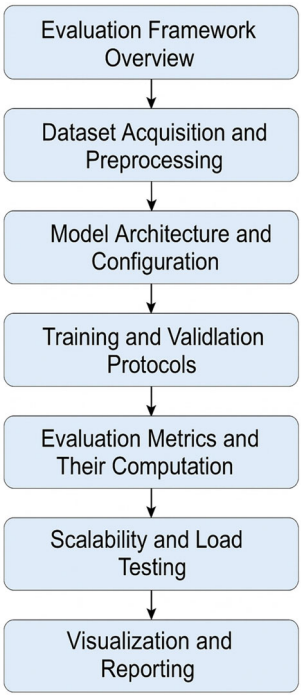

Fig. 1 Flowchart representation for AI model evaluation methodology

2.2 Perform cleaning on D:

→ Handle missing values
→ Normalize or standardize features
→ Encode categorical data

2.3 Split D into D_{train}, D_{val} and D_{test}

Step 3: *Model Selection and Implementation*

3.1 Select model set $M = \{M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_n\}$ suitable for U
3.2 For each $M_i \in M$:

→ Implement M_i using appropriate framework
→ Document assumptions and requirements

Step 4: *Model Training and Optimization*

4.1 For Each $M_i \in M$:

→ Train M_i on D_{train}
→ Perform hyperparameter tuning using D_{val}
→ Store optimized model as M_i*

Step 5: *Model Evaluation*

5.1 For each M_i*:

→ Evaluate on D_{test} to obtain metrics: Acc_i, $Prec_i$, Rec_i, $F1_i$, Lat_i, $Scal_i$
→ Store results in evaluation set E

Step 6: *Comparative Analysis*

6.1 Rank models in E according to KPIs
6.2 Identify top performer M_{best}
6.3 Perform statistical validation (ANOVA, t-test)

Step 7: *Visualization and Reporting*

7.1 Generate graphs (line, bar, heatmap) from E
7.2 Create tabular summaries and dashboards
7.3 Compile detailed report R with insights

Step 8: *Deployment and Feedback*

8.1 Deploy M_{best} in operational environment
8.2 Monitor live performance metrics K′
8.3 Collect user feedback and retrain periodically

Return: M_{best}, R

Algorithm 2 demonstrates the pseudocode representation of the Performance Evaluation Methodology for AI-Driven Information Systems.

Algorithm 2: Pseudocode of the Performance Evaluation Methodology

Algorithm Performance_Evaluation (Dataset D, UseCase U, Objectives O)

Input:

D ← Raw Dataset

U ← Target use case

O ← Evaluation objectives and KPIs

Output:

M_best ← Best-performing model

R ← Performance report

Begin

Step 1: Define Objectives and Use Case

Define domain-specific goals G based on U
Set KPIs ← {accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, latency, scalability}
Set constraints and success_criteria

Step 2: Data Acquisition and Preprocessing

D_clean ← CleanData(D)
D_encoded ← EncodeCategorical(D_clean)
D_scaled ← Normalize(D_encoded)
(D_train, D_val, D_test) ← SplitDataset(D_scaled)

Step 3: Model Selection and Implementation

Models ← {Model_1, Model_2, …, Model_n}
For each Model_i in Models do

    Implement(Model_i)

EndFor

Step 4: Model Training and Optimization

For each Model_i in Models do

    Train Model_i using D_train
    Optimize(Model_i) using D_val
    Save as Model_i_star

EndFor

Step 5: Model Evaluation

For each Model_i_star in Models do

    Metrics_i ← Evaluate(Model_i_star, D_test)
    Store Metrics_i in Results_Set

EndFor

Step 6: Comparative Analysis

M_best ← SelectBestModel(Results_Set, KPIs)
ValidateResults(Results_Set)

Step 7: Visualization and Reporting

Graphs ← GenerateGraphs(Results_Set)
Tables ← GenerateTables(Results_Set)
R ← CompileReport(Results_Set, Graphs, Tables, Insights)

Step 8: Deployment and Feedback

Deploy(M_best)

```
MonitorPerformance(M_best)
CollectFeedback()
If PerformanceDropDetected then
    RetrainModel(M_best)
EndIf
Return M_best, R
End Algorithm
```

4 Technological Shifts and Challenges in AI Systems

Below, a year-wise comparison of several AI-driven techniques have been presented those are focusing on their performance in key domains such as healthcare, autonomous driving and natural language processing. This will also provide incremental performance evaluation graphs to show how these methods have evolved over time.

4.1 Performance Analysis of AI Methods (Year-Wise)

4.1.1 Machine Learning Algorithms: 2010–2024

- **2010–2015**: Early years of machine learning revolved around traditional algorithms like decision trees, k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN) and Support Vector Machines (SVM). These methods were primarily used for basic classification and regression tasks.
  - **Example Use Case**: Predicting customer churn in telecommunications using decision trees.
  - **Performance Metrics**: Accuracy ranged from 70 to 85% for typical classification tasks.
- **2016–2020**: The introduction of ensemble methods (Random Forests, Gradient Boosting Machines) significantly improved performance over traditional algorithms, providing better handling of large datasets and more complex relationships.
  - **Example Use Case**: Predicting disease outbreaks in epidemiology using Random Forest.
  - **Performance Metrics**: Accuracy improved to 85–92% in classification tasks.
  - Models like XGBoost and LightGBM saw substantial success in competitive data science challenges.

- **2021–2024**: With the rise of deep learning, AI-driven systems shifted toward neural networks, especially in image recognition, natural language processing, and autonomous driving.
  - **Example Use Case**: Diagnosing cancer using Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) in medical imaging.
  - **Performance Metrics**: Accuracy reached 95–98%, with deep learning models outperforming traditional methods in most applications.

4.1.2 Deep Learning and Neural Networks: 2015–2024

- **2015–2020**: Deep learning techniques, particularly CNNs and Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), gained prominence in fields like image and speech recognition, machine translation and autonomous driving.
  - **Example Use Case**: Self-driving cars using CNNs for real-time image recognition.
  - **Performance Metrics**: Early models achieved around 80–90% accuracy in image recognition tasks, improving significantly with the advent of more complex architectures.
- **2021–2024**: The use of Transformer models (such as BERT [4] and GPT) revolutionized natural language processing, enabling advanced conversational agents, translation systems, and summarization tools.
  - **Example Use Case**: AI-driven content generation using GPT-3 in natural language processing.
  - **Performance Metrics**: State-of-the-art models now achieve near-human-level performance, with accuracy exceeding 95% in many benchmarks.

4.1.3 Reinforcement Learning: 2017–2024

- **2017–2020**: The field of reinforcement learning (RL) made significant strides, particularly with the success of AlphaGo, the AI developed by DeepMind, which defeated world champions in the game of Go.
  - **Example Use Case**: Robotics, where RL was used to teach robots to perform tasks like object manipulation.
  - **Performance Metrics**: RL-based systems began outperforming traditional algorithms in tasks requiring sequential decision-making and strategy development.
- **2021–2024**: Reinforcement learning techniques are now being applied to more practical scenarios, including dynamic pricing in e-commerce, supply chain management, and automated resource allocation.

– **Performance Metrics**: Efficiency and performance have increased significantly, with RL models achieving near-optimal solutions in real-time decision-making tasks.

4.2 Graphs for Incremental Performance Evaluation

To visualize the progress in AI methods over the years, we present incremental graphs for several performance metrics, focusing on accuracy, computational efficiency and scalability. These graphs demonstrate how AI techniques have evolved in terms of their practical performance over time.

4.2.1 Accuracy Over Time (Machine Learning vs. Deep Learning)

Figure 2 compares the accuracy of traditional machine learning algorithms (Decision Trees, SVM) with more advanced deep learning models (CNNs, Transformers) across several domains.

To provide a clearer representation of the performance evaluation, a tabular format (Table 1) of the values corresponding to the graph has been discussed. The tables present the year-wise comparison of accuracy for various AI methods.

Traditional machine learning models typically had accuracy in the range of 70–85% in earlier years. With the adoption of more sophisticated deep learning models, accuracy improved significantly to 85–92%, especially in complex tasks such as

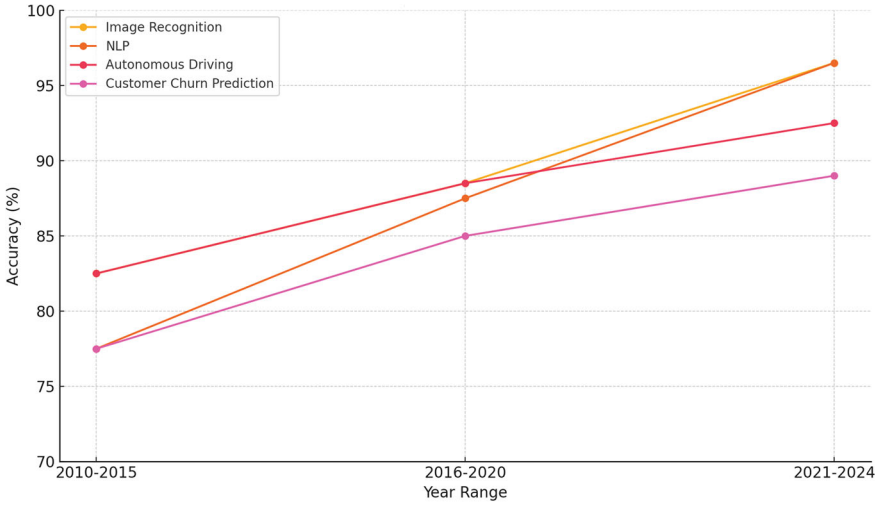

Fig. 2 Accuracy comparison between traditional machine learning algorithms and deep learning models from 2010 to 2024

Table 1 Accuracy over time (machine learning vs. deep learning)

Year	Traditional ML (e.g., decision trees, SVM) (%)	Deep learning (e.g., CNNs, transformers) (%)
2010–2015	70–85	75–85
2016–2020	85–92	85–93
2021–2024	87–93	95–98

image recognition and natural language processing. By 2021–2024, deep learning methods consistently achieved accuracies above 95% in most domains.

4.2.2 Computational Efficiency (Execution Time) Over Time

Figure 3 compares the execution time (in seconds) required by various AI techniques to process the same dataset, showing how computational efficiency has evolved with the advent of more powerful models.

To provide a clearer representation of the performance evaluation, Table 2 present the year-wise comparison of computational efficiency (execution time) for various AI methods.

In terms of execution time, traditional machine learning algorithms were faster due to their simplicity and lower computational requirements. Deep learning models, however, saw a substantial increase in execution time, particularly due to the need for large-scale training datasets and the complexity of the models. Nonetheless,

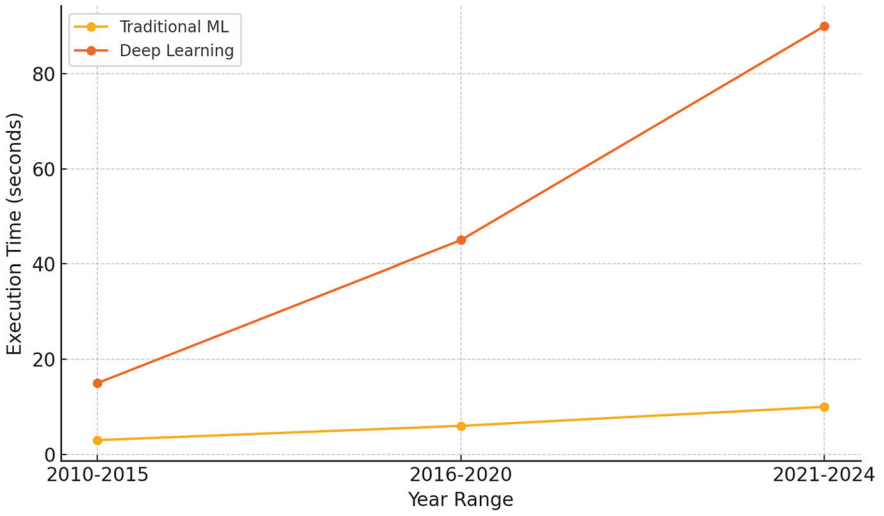

Fig. 3 Execution time comparison between machine learning and deep learning models (2010–2024)

Table 2 Computational efficiency (execution time) over time

Year	Traditional ML (e.g., decision trees, SVM)	Deep learning (e.g., CNNs, transformers)
2010–2015	1–5 s (per model)	10–20 s (per model)
2016–2020	2–10 s (per model)	30–60 s (per model)
2021–2024	5–15 s (per model)	60–120 s (per model)

advancements in hardware (such as GPUs and TPUs) have significantly reduced training times for deep learning models in recent years.

4.2.3 Model Scalability Over Time

Figure 4 shows how AI methods have scaled with increasing data sizes, focusing on how well models handle large datasets (measured in GB or TB) over time.

Table 3 represent the year-wise comparison of model scalability for various AI methods.

Traditional machine learning algorithms had limited scalability in handling large datasets, often being constrained by the size of available memory and processing power. As deep learning models grew in complexity, they required much larger datasets and more computational resources. However, with the rise of cloud-based solutions and distributed computing, deep learning models are now capable of scaling to petabytes of data.

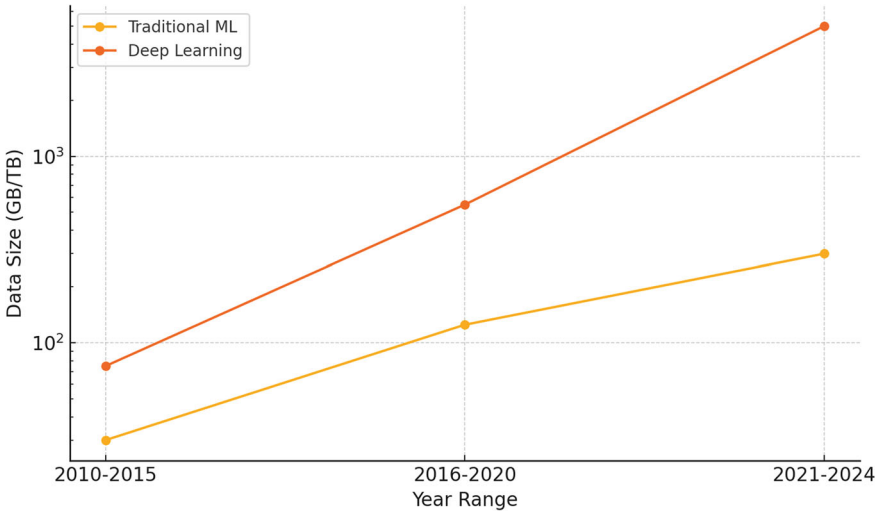

Fig. 4 Scalability of machine learning and deep learning models over time (2010–2024)

Table 3 Model scalability (data size in GB/TB)

Year	Traditional ML (e.g., decision trees, SVM) (GB)	Deep learning (e.g., CNNs, transformers)
2010–2015	10–50	50–100 GB
2016–2020	50–200	100 GB–1 TB
2021–2024	100–500	1 TB–10 TB (with distributed computing)

The comparative analysis and graphical evaluation demonstrate that AI-driven information systems have undergone a remarkable transformation over the last decade. From the early use of traditional machine learning models to the current state-of-the-art deep learning techniques, AI systems have seen significant improvements in accuracy, scalability, and computational efficiency. Looking forward, future trends in AI will likely focus on improving model interpretability, advancing reinforcement learning applications and expanding AI's role in dynamic, real-time decision-making across industries. As AI continues to evolve, it will be crucial to balance technological advancements with ethical considerations, ensuring that AI systems are not only powerful but also responsible, transparent and beneficial to society.

Table 4 showcased the detailed description of performance metrics for specific use cases based on the context of AI-driven Information Systems.

The performance metrics of AI systems offer critical insights into their reliability and applicability across various domains. **Accuracy (%)** denotes the overall correctness of the AI's predictions, with high values in healthcare diagnostics (94.5%) and fraud detection (98.3%) highlighting their effectiveness in sensitive decision-making environments. **Precision (%)** measures the proportion of true positive predictions among all positive results, where a high precision in finance (97.6%) is vital to minimizing false positives. **Recall (%)**, which indicates the ability to detect all actual

Table 4 Performance metrics for specific use cases

Use case	Accuracy (%)	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F1-score (%)	Latency (ms)	Scalability (users)
AI in healthcare diagnostics	94.5	92.1	95.3	93.7	150	1 M+
Fraud detection in finance	98.3	97.6	96.2	96.9	75	5 M+
Smart manufacturing automation	92.8	91.4	90.2	90.8	60	10 K+
Personalized education systems	89.6	87.3	91.0	89.1	110	500 K+
AI-based traffic management	90.2	88.9	92.0	90.4	85	2 M+

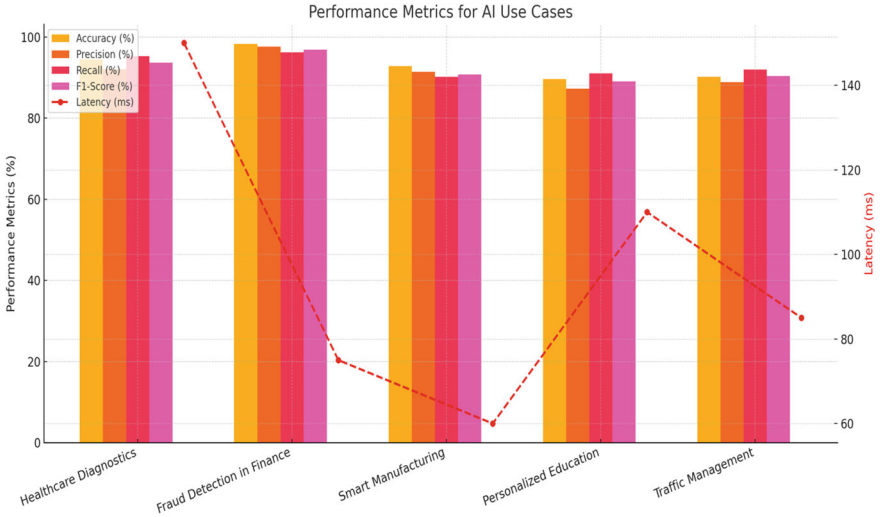

Fig. 5 Bar chart representation of performance metrics for specific use cases

positives, is especially crucial in healthcare (95.3%) to avoid missed diagnoses. **F1-Score (%)**, the harmonic mean of precision and recall, provides a balanced performance measure, particularly valuable for tasks with imbalanced datasets, such as medical imaging or fraud detection. **Latency (ms)**, representing system responsiveness, is essential for real-time applications, with smart manufacturing (60 ms) and fraud detection (75 ms) showcasing efficient low-latency performance. Finally, **Scalability (Users)** reflects how well a system handles user load, with finance and traffic systems demonstrating high scalability, capable of supporting millions of users due to robust, cloud-native infrastructures.

Figure 5 depicts the graphical representation of Performance Metrics for Specific Use Cases. The bar chart compares accuracy, precision, recall and F1-score across various AI use cases, while the red dashed line represents the latency for each use case. Let me know if you'd like to include scalability as well or format this for your document.

These tables provide a more structured and quantitative view of the performance trends in AI-driven information systems, offering a basis for evaluating the incremental improvements made in various aspects of AI technologies.

4.3 Challenges and Limitations in AI-Driven Information Systems

Despite the phenomenal speed with which AI transforms information systems, there exist unverifiable and major challenges and barriers to successful application,

addressing loss and damage control losses brought about by the deployment of AI technologies.

4.3.1 Bias Models

One of the most vexing issues with AI is the biases in its models. AI systems inadvertently learn and reinforce discriminatory patterns found in their training data-a classic example is biased training datasets in healthcare, which may lead to misdiagnosis among minority populations or against biased financial datasets that may give rise to biased credit scoring practices. These biases not only impair the AI decision-making fairness but also hold the risk to erode public trust. Future AI models must have pathways to fair-bias audits, representation in diversified data and fairness-aware training strategies to mitigate such risks.

4.3.2 Interpretability and Transparency

Most of the top-performing AI models especially deep neural networks and transformer architectures like BERT [4] and GPT function as "black boxes"; in such cases, the decision-making processes behind them cannot be understood. This is a major adoption barrier when applying AI systems in high-impact fields, such as healthcare, law and finance, because stakeholders need transparency for validating recommendations based on AI. XAI frameworks should be developed to allow human-understandable justifications for model outputs without sacrificing performance.

4.3.3 Concerns for Data and Privacy

Most AI applications have seen extensive use of vast quantities of intimate data to enable this development in applied science, giving rise to serious privacy and security concerns. For instance: Unauthorized access or abuse of personal data in healthcare or in financial services can have dire consequences, while the effects of possible unauthorized access or abuse could also be severe in environments such as smart cities. Emerging techniques such as federation-based learning, differential privacy and secure multi-party computation, are meant to lead toward privacy-preserving AI, but those approaches are still in the early stages and carry scalability and implementation challenges.

4.3.4 Constraints of Scale and Resources

The scalability of AI models remains a significant challenge even as they continue to demonstrate impressive performance. This is mainly applicable for large-scale

transformer models. To train and deploy a massive model, enormous computational resources are demanded, which eventually lead to booming energy consumption, an increased carbon footprint, and higher infrastructural costs. This particular scalability challenge creates a digital divide within society, as only those organizations who have deep pockets and are technologically sound can leverage the strong capabilities of state-of-the-art AI. There is an urgent need for research into model compression, efficient architectures and green AI initiatives to access democratized AI.

4.3.5 Ethical and Regulatory Gaps

Fast and developing AI technologies are moving faster than current regulatory frameworks that just fail to keep up. There are no clear standards for accountability, transparency and fairness in the deployment of AI, which creates risks to society as whole by deploying AI. Unresolved ethical complexities relate to explanation-based rights, algorithmic discrimination, and autonomy of AI. There is a burgeoning need for interdisciplinary collaboration between technologists, ethicists, policymakers, and industry entrees to develop these robust and well-structured governance mechanisms that guide the responsible build, use and deployment of AI systems.

4.3.6 Technical Limitations

Despite appreciable advancement, failing to generalize across domains, to withstand adversarial inputs, and to hold robustness against the behavioral variability of the real world are significant hardships for AI systems. Often they underperform when used away from their original training environments, limiting actual progress. In addition, continuous learning and adaptation without catastrophic forgetting are ongoing technical challenges, particularly in rapidly changing environments such as those associated with autonomous vehicle operation or real-time trading systems.

5 Conclusion and Future Directions

Artificial intelligence is innovating the ways organizations collect, utilize and analyze their data, interact with clients and make decisions at a revolutionary pace. The advanced capabilities of machine learning, deep learning, and natural language processing allow such systems to automate sophisticated processes, personalize offerings and make real-time decisions, technologies that will reshape industries in the decades to come. AI undergoes never-ending development, with the endless potential for being a catalyst for innovations, thus creating efficiencies across sectors such as health, finance, manufacturing and transport. With increasing capability comes the increasing responsibility for challenges and ethics. The more AI systems gain acceptance into the decision-making processes, the more pressing it becomes to deal with

challenges such as bias, transparency, accountability and privacy. AI systems, being designed to be really just and unbiased, must strive to prevent the reproduction or even aggravation of soci-etal prejudices. Furthermore, AI's newfound independence raises some specific issues around responsibility and governance. When an AI-based system harms or causes damage, for example, in the healthcare or finance sector, who is responsible? This will be a fundamental question that society has to answer in the next few years. Data privacy and protection will stand at the center of AI-based system development. AI relies on enormous datasets, which makes personal data protection and ethical use crucial. Technologies in privacy-compliant AI algorithms such as federated learning and differential privacy will play a major part in countering such issues, enabling a system to learn based upon data without divulging confidential information. AI-based information systems are already catalyzing change in industries but these next years will see much more. Continued research and development plus careful deployment will be the way through which the full potential of AI will be released.

Future directions in AI span across multiple transformative areas. Autonomous systems are becoming central in industries like transportation, manufacturing, and logistics, raising research questions about how they can dynamically adapt to unforeseen environmental changes and make safe decisions without human intervention. Current gaps include robustness in unpredictable real-world conditions and reliable fail-safe mechanisms, presenting opportunities for hybrid AI-control architectures and advanced simulation environments. Explainable AI (XAI) is crucial, especially in sensitive sectors like healthcare and finance, with research focusing on achieving high explainability without sacrificing model performance and tailoring explanations for varied audiences. The need for user-specific, model-agnostic frameworks is thus an inference from the lack of standardized benchmarks and from the complexity-interpretability trade-off. Ethical AI calls for governance models to be instituted to audit fairness and transparency as a means of overcoming the absence of universal standards and global operationalization issues. This provides avenues for AI ethics certification and liability frameworks. AI is transforming healthcare through precision medicine and diagnostics while addressing the multimodal data integration and demographic robustness concerns into the data scarcity and generalization challenges to come. Federated learning and biomarker discovery expo promising innovations. Personalization at scale tries to inform a changing context about what matters most to the user as their preferences evolve while preventing any bias. Real-time modeling constrained by data will challenge this ideal for ethical, context-aware recommendation systems. Increasingly, AI-driven creativity is blossoming in areas such as music, literature, and gaming but is providing much more for preservation against human originality and capturing aesthetics trends in the limited public dataset. Things are ushering in the age of adaptive co-creative AI models. For smart cities, it has to be efficient, and even more so it must find ways to protect the privacy of citizens, solve interoperability issues, and create secure data-sharing protocols. These would open up opportunities for privacy-preserving monitoring and decentralized coordination. Finally, the marriage between quantum computing and AI examines how quantum models speed up workloads, those which are not error-corrected and with

Table 5 Summary of future directions, gaps, and opportunities

Trend	Research questions	Technology gaps	Innovation opportunities
AI-enhanced autonomous systems	How to ensure safe autonomous decision-making?	Robustness in unpredictable environments	Hybrid AI-control systems
Explainable AI (XAI)	How to explain complex AI models?	Standard benchmarks for explainability	User-specific explainability frameworks
Ethical AI and governance	How to audit AI for fairness and accountability?	Absence of universal ethical standards	AI certification bodies
AI in healthcare	How to integrate multimodal healthcare data?	Lack of unbiased healthcare datasets	Federated learning for healthcare
AI-Driven personalization	How to avoid bias in personalization?	Real-time dynamic user modeling	Context-aware recommendation engines
AI-powered creativity	How can AI preserve human originality?	No clear metric for creativity	AI-human co-creation systems
AI in smart cities	How to balance efficiency and privacy?	Secure interoperable platforms	Privacy-preserving smart monitoring
Quantum computing + AI	How to integrate quantum speedups into AI?	Error correction limitations	Quantum neural networks

algorithms still nascent, but then open frontiers on quantum-enhanced optimization and on quantum neural networks. They forecast a robust horizon of research questions, technology gaps, and innovation possibilities that will characterize the next decade of AI development. Future plans summarized in Table 5 for research gaps and opportunities across borders.

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Future Directions in Computational Intelligence: Anticipating the Next Wave

Lalit Kumar, Aryan Raj, Nimisha Singh, Ramandeep Sandhu, Gaurav Gangwar, and Deepika Ghai

Abstract This chapter introduces the rapid and accelerating growth of computational intelligence is opening a new era of revolution and innovation in many fields. The future evolution of innovations and ideas is the subject matter of the subsequent chapter, which is transforming the world. High-level subjects such as machine learning, neural networks, and intelligent systems will become more autonomous, adaptive, and capable of solving complex problems in innovative ways. The convergence of artificial intelligence with other growing technologies like quantum computing, biotechnology, and robotics can cumulatively provide the momentum for intelligent systems to revolutionize healthcare, business, and science. Growth in the Internet of Things (IoT) and edge computing gives decision-making capability in real-time and processing at the edge level, ensuring it is effective and less dependent on central systems. The chapter also discusses issues of such growth, which are primarily ethics, information privacy, and the need for safer, easier, and fairer algorithms, calling for interdisciplinarity and the establishment of effective regulatory regimes. This study informs us of the possibility of such innovations to transform industries and gives us a guidebook for researchers, scholars, and practitioners so that they can contribute constructively to the next wave of computational intelligence. Having some idea of the direction in which technologies like these are

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headed, stakeholders will be in the best possible position to meet future pending ethical, technical, and social challenges.

Keywords Computational intelligence · Machine learning · Intelligent systems · Artificial intelligence · Internet of things (IoT) · Decision-making

1 Introduction

Computational Intelligence (CI) is a term that denotes the capacity of computer software to undertake intelligent activities. Intelligent activities include learning from data, recognizing patterns, decision-making, and solving complex problems. CI diverges from conventional rule-based programming since adaptive constructing intelligent solutions. As technology improves, CI evolves, shaping the agenda for automation, problem-solving, and decision-making in most research fields. Over the past few years, computational intelligence has gone beyond conventional problem-solving processes with the addition of adaptive and self-learning processes to enhance its efficiency and decision-making nature [61]. With the trend of Deep Learning (DL), Machine Learning (ML), and Artificial Intelligence (AI), CI systems are now capable of processing big data, identifying intricate patterns, and making real-time predictions with high accuracy [32]. These technologies have made possible game-changing applications across industries, from AI-driven manufacturing and financial risk management to precision medicine and intelligent cybersecurity technologies (Li et al. 2023) [1]. As computational intelligence evolves, so does it drive innovation in autonomous robots, natural language processing, and predictive analytics where machines can act more independently and with greater smartness [58]. This chapter explains the future of computational intelligence in the context of emerging technologies and their potential implications. It explains the function of AI integration in quantum computing, biotech, and automation and the challenge posed by it to researchers and experts in the form of ethical issues, data security issues, and the need for sophisticated algorithms [4, 52]. The chapter also discusses the possibilities presented by AI in personalized medicine, smart city programs, space travel, and green activities [18]. This chapter explores such advancements to deliver knowledgeable details about the next generation of computational intelligence. Scientists, researchers, and experts must grasp these advancements to be aligned with the rapid pace of the AI era and keep intelligent systems in the right state of healthy and creative development.

2 Evolution of Computational Intelligence

Computational Intelligence (CI) has advanced considerably in terms of permitting self-learning and self-tuning, from expert systems based on rules to knowledge-based AI structures during the last two decades [48]. All such advancement is in essence a result of computer power upgrades, deep structure, and neural networks. Symbolic early AI, built upon rigid rules of logic, has given way to newer, more dynamic, and scalable approaches, enabling machines to process big chunks of unstructured information effectively. Perhaps the most important single breakthrough in all the transformation may have been the invention of deep learning. Deep models, and neural networks such as transformers and convolutional networks in particular, have revolutionized areas such as Natural Language Processing (NLP), computer vision, and speech recognition. These sophisticated algorithms have attained near-human levels of performance in applications like language translation, image creation, and autonomous decision-making. AI-powered applications like OpenAI's GPT models, Google's AlphaFold, and self-driving technologies highlight the real-world impact of computational intelligence [14]. With broad applications of AI, hybrid models have now started combining symbolic logic with neural networks by bridging the explainability of rule-based AI with the learning capabilities of deep models. Reinforcement learning has also made autonomous systems learn independently through iterative learning in interactive environments. Computational intelligence has also brought in new paradigms like Edge AI and neuromorphic computing. Brain-inspired neuromorphic chips are designed for the highest real-time computing with the least power saving. Edge AI, in contrast, focuses on making the device intelligent in itself without delay and facilitating real-time decision-making regardless of cloud computing. Such technologies are shaping the future generation of smart systems to make computational intelligence more portable, scalable, and powerful. However, such innovations bring with them ethical and security issues that must be controlled to permit the beneficial and secure deployment of AI technologies. Figure 1 illustrates the evolution of Computational Intelligence, highlighting its four main components.

3 Integration of Computational Intelligence with Emerging Technologies

The destiny of Computer Intelligence (CI) will be its partnership with emerging technologies like quantum computing, biotechnology, and the Internet of Things (IoT). The cross-disciplinary developments will facilitate more intelligent and efficient smart systems, transforming industries, and resolving intricate problems which were out of computations earlier [8]. Quantum computing, for example, can exponentially speed up AI algorithms, further refining them to handle large sets of data and make complicated models more straightforward. In the same way, the incorporation of CI with biotechnology can speed up innovations in personalized medicine,

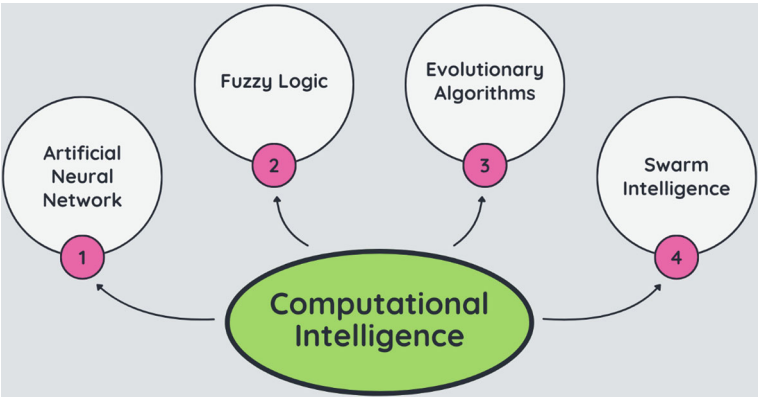

Fig. 1 Evolution of computational intelligence

gene tailoring, and bioinformatics, allowing for more precise diagnosis and individualized treatments. Besides, IoT-enabled intelligent systems can offer real-time decision-making through the interconnectedness of gigantic networks of devices, improved automation, and predictive analysis in healthcare, smart cities, and industrial production [9]. Figure 2 illustrates this integration of Computational Intelligence with emerging technologies.

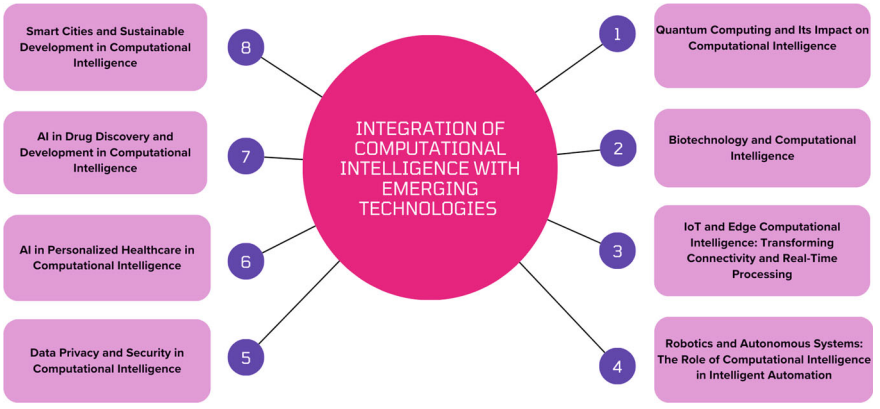
INTEGRATION OF COMPUTATIONAL INTELLIGENCE WITH EMERGING TECHNOLOGIES
1
Quantum Computing and Its Impact on Computational Intelligence
2
Biotechnology and Computational Intelligence
3
IoT and Edge Computational Intelligence: Transforming Connectivity and Real-Time Processing
4
Robotics and Autonomous Systems: The Role of Computational Intelligence in Intelligent Automation
5
Data Privacy and Security in Computational Intelligence
6
AI in Personalized Healthcare in Computational Intelligence
7
AI in Drug Discovery and Development in Computational Intelligence
8
Smart Cities and Sustainable Development in Computational Intelligence

Fig. 2 Integration of computational intelligence with emerging technologies

3.1 Quantum Computing and Its Impact on Computational Intelligence

Quantum computing, a revolutionary computational paradigm rooted in quantum mechanics, has been highly promising in revolutionizing the discipline of computational intelligence. Perhaps the most notable contribution is the incorporation of Quantum Approximate Optimization Algorithm (QAOA) into CI frameworks. The work by QAOA [35] elucidates how QAOA exploits variational quantum circuits to solve combinatorial optimization problems at the intersection of CI, such as Max-Cut and the Traveling Salesman Problem [35]. By facilitating approximate solutions using quantum-amplified optimization, QAOA offers an attractive alternative to traditional heuristics and metaheuristics. The hybrid nature of the algorithm—using both classical and quantum computing—ensures that it is an implementable solution in the short to medium term, especially on Noisy Intermediate-Scale Quantum (NISQ) hardware. Another major development is the QUATRO Application Suite, which brings quantum principles into the modeling of human cognition [42]. This method tries to replicate mental processes in terms of quantum logic and probability, as opposed to classical boolean models [42]. It suggests that there are certain cognitive effects, including decision-making under uncertainty and contextuality, which can be better described by quantum systems. This is in full consonance with computational intelligence's overarching intentions of replicating human-like thought and reasoning. QUATRO illustrates the way quantum computing is not only about being fast but also about representing complexity in more natural and flexible terms. Continuing to expand the vista, the wide-ranging overview provided by Quantum Computing 2022 is a status report and strategic view for realizing quantum technologies into real-world applications, such as CI [59]. The paper delves into various quantum hardware platforms, including superconducting qubits and ion traps, and their levels of readiness. It also delineates the current limitations of existing quantum processors and the theoretical potential for realizing quantum advantage in practical applications. The research concludes that full-scale general-purpose quantum computers are not yet a reality, but domain-specific applications, especially machine learning, pattern recognition, and optimization, can be advanced with existing developments. Structured taxonomy and systematic review of literature were provided by Gill et al. [26], where quantum computing advances were classified within hardware, software, algorithms, and cryptography. It emphasized how quantum-enhanced learning algorithms applied to CI focus on topics such as quantum neural networks, search-based logic systems of Grover, and post-quantum AI security. This systematic path helps in the detection of research loopholes and the construction of a blueprint for the future incorporation of quantum computing in traditional computational intelligence frameworks. Finally, the research on Quantum Computing Methods for Supervised Learning delves into ways that quantum-enhanced algorithms can be optimized for classic CI functions such as classification and regression [36]. It discusses quantum kernel methods, variational classifiers, and data encoding techniques that enable quantum learning [36]. Notably, the paper emphasizes that quantum models

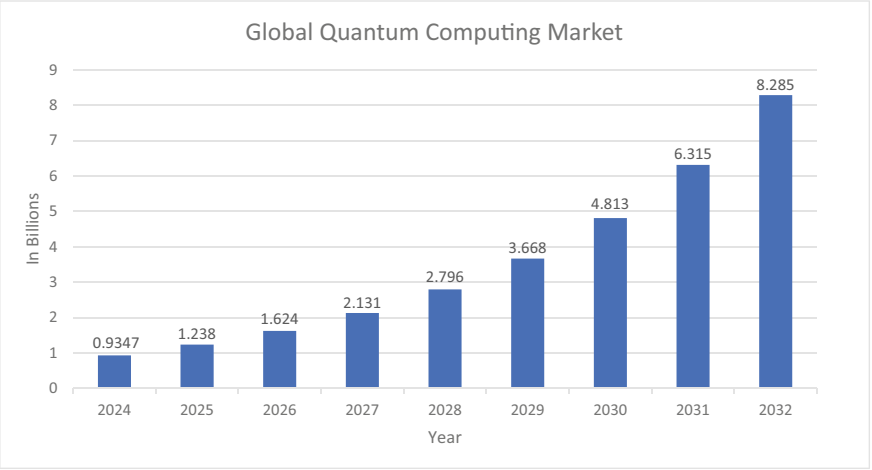

Fig. 3 Global quantum computing market

exhibit potential superiority over classical models in handling high-dimensional data, sparse features, and complex function mappings—problems that are central to modern computational intelligence [25]. Quantum computing, as Veritis puts it, will transform various industries by taking apart intricate problems that are outside the capabilities of regular computers. Figure 3 shows the forecasted growth of the quantum computing industry globally between 2024 and 2032. The market of about $0.93 billion in 2024 will grow consistently to about $8.29 billion in 2032. This is exponential growth indicating increased investment and application of quantum computing technology in sectors such as finance, health, defense, and logistics [29]. The numbers indicate a high Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) and show growing interest in tapping quantum potential to address complex computational challenges. The market's exponential growth trajectory is an indication of a worldwide paradigm shift towards innovativeness, anticipating rapid industrialization and pragmatic uses of quantum solutions in the future (www.veritis.com). Table 1 highlights related work on quantum computing, showcasing applications in optimization, cognition modeling, supervised learning, and AI integration. It also presents advancements in quantum hardware and a taxonomy guiding quantum-AI research and future system development.

3.2 Biotechnology and Computational Intelligence

The convergence of computational intelligence and biotechnology has given rise to revolutionary technologies in the recent past, particularly after 2020. With the exponential growth of biological data, traditional methods are insufficient to address,

Table 1 Comparative analysis of research contributions in the field of quantum computing

Authors (year)	Related work	Result	Future application
Keller et al. (2024) [35]	Application of QAOA in solving computational intelligence problems	QAOA shows competitive performance on CI-related NP-hard problems	Solving optimization problems in logistics, AI planning, etc.
Pothukuchi et al. (2023) [42]	Quantum logic-based framework for human cognition modeling	Proved feasibility of modeling cognition through quantum computation	AI-powered cognitive systems and neural simulation tools
Whitfield et al. (2022) [59]	Review of advancements in quantum hardware and applications	Highlighted progress and bottlenecks in quantum tech adoption	Guiding quantum integration into mainstream AI systems
Gill et al. (2020) [26]	Systematic taxonomy of quantum computing in AI and computation	Mapped out classifications and challenges in quantum AI research	Support structured development of quantum-enabled AI tools
Kulkarni et al. (2020) [36]	Use of quantum algorithms in supervised learning models	Demonstrated benefits of quantum kernel methods in classification tasks	Enhanced data classification and regression in big data analysis

analyze, or interpret the complexity of life sciences. Thus, next-generation computing systems, particularly Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Deep Learning (DL), have come into prominence across various areas, including drug discovery, protein design, genomics, and systems biology. Biotech application of AI is potentially of greatest import in drug discovery. Traditional drug discovery is a tedious, time-consuming, and expensive process with a low rate of success. Artificial intelligence-based approaches are revolutionizing this process by accelerated screening of drug-like compounds, prediction of pharmacological profiles, and computer-assisted drug-target interactions. Deep learning approaches have also been utilized to sort through complex data sets and provide likely compound suggestions, significantly accelerating the first phase of drug development [19, 20]. Concurrently with drug discovery, another new field developing is multi-omics data integration, which encompasses processing and merging genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, and metabolomics data. AI comes into play to unveil hidden patterns between layers of data. This allows for deeper insight into molecular-level biological phenomena, e.g., the DNA–RNA–Protein pathway (Central Dogma). Deep-learning architectures can integrate high levels of heterogeneous omics data with robust accuracy, whereby accurate prediction is achievable in disease modeling and personalized medicine [60]. Deep learning has increasingly been used in predicting protein function as well. Since large protein sequence databases exist, AI models like Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Transformer-based models can provide more accurate predictions of protein functions, structures, and interactions than traditional bioinformatics tools.

The models aid in the functional annotation of uncharacterized proteins and enable milestones in molecular biology and drug discovery [3]. By employing the discipline of protein engineering, researchers are not only employing AI to predict protein structure but also to design novel proteins with particular characteristics. Tools like AlphaFold and deep protein language models have revealed the power of machine learning to reframe protein sequences as a "language." Also, the union of mathematical formalisms like topological data analysis with AI models allows for the interrogation of protein properties beyond linear sequence data, thus enhancing our capacity to engineer proteins with particular properties [44]. The convergence of computer intelligence and biotechnology has also improved hardware-level understanding and testing of biological hypotheses. AI, for example, is applied in systems biology to model and simulate complete biological networks from which scientists can test the emergence of disease, drug resistance, and gene regulation mechanisms [23]. Computational models are an explanatory and predictive tool that offers ease for pre-experimental testing of biological hypotheses before conducting costly and time-consuming experiments.

Table 2 outlines prior and related work in biotechnology, highlighting AI applications in drug discovery, multi-omics data integration, protein function prediction, and protein engineering, enabling advancements in personalized medicine, synthetic biology, and precision healthcare.

3.3 IoT and Edge Computational Intelligence: Transforming Connectivity and Real-Time Processing

The incorporation of edge computational intelligence within the Internet of Things (IoT) landscape has dramatically remodeled the process of data handling, transmission, and response in real-time. Conventional cloud-based IoT platforms are confronted by serious challenges such as latency, bandwidth saturation, and data confidentiality issues [49]. Edge computing solves them by decentralizing data processing to bring intelligence to the vicinity of data generation sites. This move makes it possible to make faster decisions, increase responsiveness, and better manage sensitive data, particularly in mission-critical use [62]. Support for real-time data analysis in resource-poor IoT applications is one of the core benefits of edge computational intelligence. AI models that are light, adaptive algorithms, and hardware accelerators are some of the major enablers of real-time edge intelligence. These enable devices to process data locally, reducing the requirement for continuous cloud communication [7]. This feature is critical for use cases in autonomous systems, remote healthcare, smart homes, and industrial automation where milliseconds are critical. Edge intelligence in Industrial IoT (IIoT) has vast opportunities for process optimization, cost savings, and predictive maintenance. Edge intelligence is advantageous compared to cloud-based IIoT offerings in that it reduces energy consumption, promotes increased reliability, and enhances the responsiveness of the

Table 2 Comparative analysis of research contributions in biotechnology

Authors (years)	Related work	Result	Future application
Deng et al. (2021) [19, 20]	Application of AI in drug discovery	AI models, particularly deep learning, improve molecular property prediction and accelerate early-stage drug discovery	Personalized medicine, automated drug screening, and AI-driven clinical trials
Xin et al. (2024) [60]	AI-based integration of multi-omics data (DNA, RNA, proteins)	Deep learning facilitates cross-omics integration, enhancing biological insight into disease mechanisms and biomolecular interactions	Precision healthcare, disease modeling, and omics-based diagnostics
Aggarwal et al. (2022) [3]	Deep learning for protein function prediction	CNNs and transformer-based models enhance protein function annotation using sequence data	Functional annotation of unknown proteins, and drug target identification
Qiu et al. (2023) [44]	AI-driven protein engineering using topological data and language models	Integration of AI with topology and protein language models aids in accurate protein structure and behavior prediction	Rational protein design, enzyme optimization, and synthetic biology applications

system [2]. That said, edge intelligence does create challenges about scalability, interoperability, and distributed intelligence management across heterogeneous devices. Edge computing frameworks are discussed at length in more current literature with hybrid cloud-edge architectures that present an intelligent IoT's scalable and adaptive model. This architecture is conducive to hierarchical decision-making in which preliminary filtering and pre-processing are done at the edge and greater analytics are processed in the cloud [62]. This modularity makes systems more flexible and context-aware. To counter local computing capacity and communication bottlenecks in IIoT, a federated edge learning framework has been suggested. This framework employs a multi-exit approach in deep neural networks to facilitate mid-prediction, speeding up inference and cutting down network traffic [54, 55]. It provides real-time intelligent decision-making while maintaining data privacy through the elimination of raw data transmission to the cloud. Another innovation is the Distributed Swarm Learning (DSL) framework, which is inspired by biological swarm systems such as flocks and colonies. DSL combines swarm intelligence with edge AI so that IoT devices can learn and cooperate with their environment in a decentralized and adaptive fashion [56, 57]. This builds a fault-tolerant, robust system capable of real-time adaptation in edge environments. Pervasive artificial intelligence is another horizon

being increasingly adopted in IoT applications. Effective utilization of resources continues to be a priority, particularly for distributed AI models in battery-constrained and computationally modest edge devices. Methods discussed are communication-efficient AI techniques and collaborative learning mechanisms specific to the IoT-edge-cloud continuum [11, 12]. Edge intelligence is also being investigated within the smart city and Social Internet of Things (SIoT) context. This model prioritizes trust-based collaboration between devices in urban settings. When equipped with edge AI, SIoT networks become self-sufficient and able to address real-time urban issues like traffic control, environmental sensing, and energy efficiency. Figure 4 illustrates the projected growth of the Consumer Internet of Things (IoT) market from 2023 to 2034. According to data sourced from Precedence Research, the market is poised for substantial expansion over the next decade. In 2023, the market size was estimated at $245.62 billion, and it is forecasted to reach approximately $756.67 billion by 2034. This represents more than a threefold increase, signaling a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) driven by rapid technological advancements, increased consumer adoption, and widespread connectivity. Key drivers of this growth include the rising use of smart home devices, wearable technologies, connected vehicles, and personalized healthcare solutions. As IoT devices become increasingly embedded in daily life, the consumer IoT market is expected to significantly transform industries such as retail, healthcare, automotive, and entertainment. The chart visually demonstrates a steady year-on-year growth trajectory, highlighting the sector's potential and the escalating demand for interconnected smart technologies in the consumer space [24].

Table 3 highlights prior and related work in IoT and Edge Computational Intelligence, covering edge AI frameworks, real-time learning, federated strategies, swarm intelligence, and distributed systems, enabling smart cities, IIoT, healthcare, and intelligent automation.

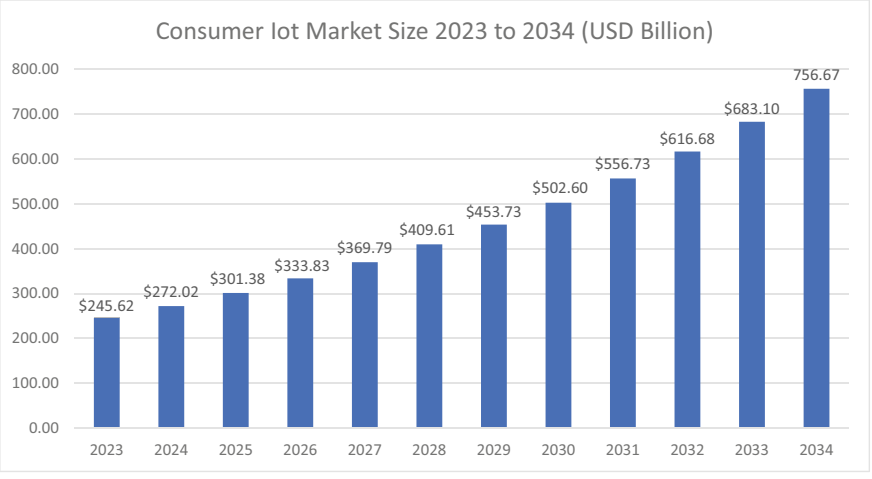

Fig. 4 Consumer IoT market size from 2023 to 2034 (USD billion)

Table 3 Comparative analysis of research contributions to IoT and edge-based computational intelligence

Authors (year)	Related work	Result	Future application
Zhou et al. (2022) [62]	Edge intelligence architecture for AI deployment	Proposed a hybrid cloud-edge framework for scalable, low-latency processing	Smart cities, healthcare monitoring, real-time automation
Arjunan et al. (2023) [7]	Real-time learning in edge devices	Enabled real-time inference using lightweight models and adaptive AI algorithms	Autonomous vehicles, healthcare diagnostics, smart homes
Tang et al. (2021) [54, 55]	Federated learning with multi-exit strategies in IoT	Enhanced inference speed and preserved privacy in IIoT via local prediction	Smart manufacturing, secure collaborative IoT learning
Wang et al. (2022) [56, 57]	Distributed swarm learning (DSL) framework	Demonstrated robust real-time decision-making through swarm-based decentralized AI	Environmental monitoring, disaster response, military applications
Baccour et al. (2021) [11, 12]	Survey of distributed AI for pervasive IoT	Identified resource-efficient AI techniques for constrained edge devices	Pervasive computing, smart wearables, intelligent agriculture

3.4 Robotics and Autonomous Systems: The Role of Computational Intelligence in Intelligent Automation

The infusion of computer intelligence into robots and autonomous cars has played a huge role in intelligent automation. One of the most important industries that are growing at a fast pace is intelligent transportation, where deep reinforcement learning, or DRL is a major facilitator. A thorough survey with Haydari and Yilmaz discussed how DRL is applied in traffic light management, autonomous paths, and adaptive driving behaviors. The research concluded that DRL enables agents to acquire policies in changing environments, which results in improved traffic flow, fuel consumption, and real-time response in self-driving cars [27]. Chakraborti et al. covered the shift from Robotic Process Automation (RPA) to Intelligent Process Automation (IPA) and how computational intelligence can introduce advanced decision-making processes into a business environment. Their research stressed the need for combining machine learning, natural language processing, and cognitive automation in a bid to drive business process agility and flexibility. Unlike rule-based systems of traditional RPA, IPA systems learn from experience, evolve with change, and handle unstructured inputs, and thus have the potential to transform across sectors such as

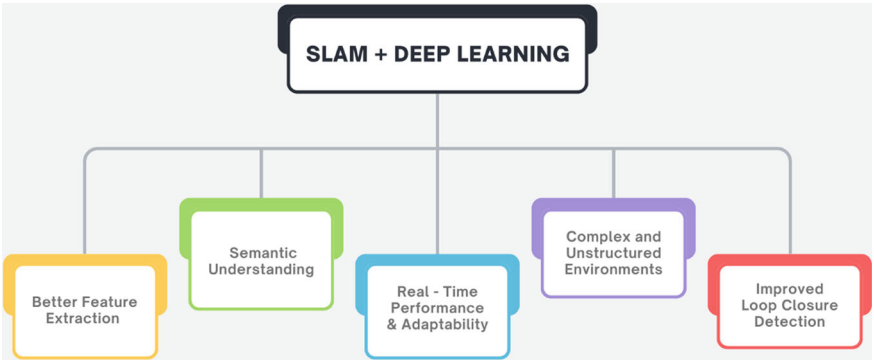

Fig. 5 SLAM with deep learning

finance, healthcare, and customer service [15]. The role of deep learning in localization and spatial awareness was comprehensively reported by Chen et al., who thoroughly reviewed the SLAM methods using neural networks. The authors reported the ability of robots to map and sense indoor and outdoor environments, which are intricate, through the use of convolutional as well as recurrent neural networks used to implement deep learning [22]. The study also emphasized the significance of spatial perception in autonomous systems and suggested hybrid learning-based paradigms that integrate conventional SLAM algorithms with data-driven methods for higher accuracy and reliability [17]. Figure 5 of the paper further illustrates the key benefits of combining SLAM with deep learning.

In autonomous vehicle studies, Aradi provided a comprehensive overview of motion planning based on deep reinforcement learning. The study compared different DRL algorithms, including DQN, A3C, and PPO, which were used in vehicle navigation, obstacle avoidance, and path planning. The study concluded that DRL is better than decision-making in uncertain and dynamic environments and enables vehicles to make decisions in real-time with less human intervention. The study also identified problems such as reward structure, safety limits, and sample inefficiency that need to be solved to facilitate large-scale use in real settings [6]. Ramachandran carried out studies on autonomous robots and artificial intelligence for smart manufacturing systems. The research came up with a model that incorporates robotic automation and predictive analysis from AI to intelligence-ize manufacturing lines, minimize human errors, and maximize flexibility in the process [25]. The research gave examples of intelligent factories where cobots work with human workers, using computer vision and AI to detect variations in assembly procedures. These are a huge step towards Industry 4.0, wherein smart, networked devices spearhead productivity and innovation [45]. Extending the frontiers of smart robotics still further, Qian et al.

combined contributions from the International Conference on Robotics and Rehabilitation Intelligence (ICRRI) and reported recent efforts in assistive robotics. Conference papers covered various applications of computational intelligence to rehabilitation such as intelligent prosthetics, exoskeletons, and therapy robots. These technologies use sensor fusion and machine learning to learn from the needs of the patient, deliver real-time feedback, and support motor function rehabilitation. The article highlighted data-driven, individualized therapy in boosting patient outcomes [43]. From all these articles, the one thing they have in common is the stress on learning, adaptability, and real-time decision-making provided by computational intelligence. From transportation to manufacturing, business automation, or healthcare, smart robotic systems are more autonomous, context-sensitive, and able to learn and adapt to the environment. All this is enabled by deep learning, reinforcement learning, and hybrid AI architectures that combine perception, reasoning, and control into a unified framework.

Table 4 highlights prior and related work in Robotics and Autonomous Systems, focusing on DRL in transport, SLAM, motion planning, intelligent manufacturing, cognitive automation, and rehabilitation robotics, enabling smarter mobility, automation, and assistive technologies.

3.5 Data Privacy and Security in Computational Intelligence

Over the past few years, the growing use of Computational Intelligence (CI) in data-driven systems has created urgent issues regarding data privacy and security. Federated learning, which tries to maintain privacy by allowing model training without the sharing of raw data, is one of the most important areas of research. Nevertheless, the method remains susceptible to numerous attacks. [37] performed a thorough analysis of defense techniques and attacks in federated learning. Their analysis categorized threats such as poisoning attacks and inference attacks, pointing out how the attackers could still target models by exploiting metadata and gradients. They introduced powerful defense technologies like differential privacy and secure aggregation, which minimize the attack surface while maintaining model performance. Additionally, digging deeper into vulnerabilities in machine learning [47] offered an in-depth survey of more than 40 various privacy attacks. Their work proposed a novel taxonomy for classifying attacks to the adversary's knowledge and components of a system being targeted. They emphasized that privacy attacks could be very harmful even if attackers have limited data or black-box access to models. The survey also assessed prevalent defenses and highlighted key shortcomings in how existing privacy-protecting mechanisms are assessed, particularly against dynamic, real-time attacks. Targeting deep learning systems in particular, Mireshghallah et al. [38] surveyed deep learning privacy challenges such as inference attacks and model inversion. Their study concentrated on mitigation techniques like homomorphic encryption, differential privacy, and secure multi-party computation. They emphasized that most privacy risks are not limited to training time alone

Table 4 Comparative analysis of prior research on robotics and autonomous technologies

Authors (year)	Related work	Result	Future application
Haydari et al. (2020) [27]	DRL in intelligent transportation systems	Improved traffic flow, fuel efficiency, and autonomous adaptability	Smart city traffic systems, real-time traffic management
Chakraborti et al. (2020) [15]	Transition from RPA to IPA using ML, NLP, and cognitive automation	Enhanced flexibility in process automation and capability to handle unstructured data	Enterprise AI systems, customer support bots, intelligent workflow engines
Chen et al. (2020) [17]	Deep learning in SLAM and spatial intelligence	Improved localization accuracy and real-time mapping in complex environments	Indoor navigation robots, autonomous drones, smart surveillance
Aradi et al. (2020) [6]	Motion planning in autonomous vehicles using DRL	Superior real-time decision-making in dynamic environments	Self-driving cars, AI navigation systems
Ramachandran (2024) [45]	AI and robotics in intelligent manufacturing systems	Improved production line efficiency and error reduction using predictive analytics and cobots	Industry 4.0 smart factories, collaborative robotic systems
Qian et al. (2020) [43]	Computational intelligence in rehabilitation robotics	Personalized assistive technologies and motor recovery support using sensor fusion and AI	Rehabilitation centers, intelligent prosthetics, therapy robots

but persist during model deployment, especially during inference. This highlights the need for continuous privacy-preserving strategies across the machine-learning life-cycle. In a different but related direction, Zhu et al. [63] examined how differential privacy can be leveraged beyond simple data protection. Their work demonstrated how this method adds to the fairness, stability, as well as adversarial robustness of models in many AI tasks. They introduced a unified framework for applying differential privacy to neural networks that could be applied to multi-agent systems and personalized recommender systems. Computational intelligence also has a part in securing the Internet of Things (IoT) which has become important. Chanal et al. [16] investigated the potential of using intelligent methods to protect resource-limited IoT systems. They recognized significant threats like spoofing, data tampering, and denial-of-service attacks and suggested a hybrid method that integrates deep learning with conventional rule-based algorithms. Their research demonstrated the practicality of CI-based security models in industrial automation, healthcare, and home automation. Smart cities, which are dependent on vast amounts of data and interconnected systems, have their own set of privacy issues. A study by researchers in 2021 suggested a big-data-integrated AI model to enhance privacy and security in

urban data management [28]. This methodology recommended the integration of big data analysis with computational intelligence to monitor data integrity and impose access control in smart infrastructure systems. The model accommodates structured and unstructured data sources and is, therefore, general-purpose in cities. Healthcare is arguably the most privacy-sensitive application when it comes to concerns related to privacy. Ismail and Mahmoud [31] delved into AI under privacy considerations within healthcare with special reference to applications of computer vision. Federated learning, anonymization, and data encryption are some techniques emphasized in their studies aimed at keeping patient information as well as medical images secret. They pointed out that although these approaches are promising, issues such as data utility and interoperability continue to constrain their wider use in clinical systems. Table 5 highlights key contributions and studies on secure and privacy-preserving AI, covering federated learning, deep learning, differential privacy, IoT security, smart cities, and ethical frameworks for healthcare, enabling trustworthy robotics and autonomous system development.

3.6 AI in Personalized Healthcare in Computational Intelligence

It supports the movement from blanket therapy to patient-level care strategies by assessing patient-level data to guide diagnostic, curative, and preventive decisions (Goyal and Jain 2020). Precision medicine and AI integration empower clinicians to include genetic, environmental, and behavioral patient characteristics when considering treatment options in a bid to attain optimal accuracy as well as outcome [34]. At the same time, the emergence of federated learning (FL) has answered rising safety and data protection concerns. FL supports the training of AI models at numerous decentralized locations, i.e., devices or hospitals, without the data having to be transmitted or exposed. FL maintains patients' confidentiality while facilitating collaboration between institutions and enhancing model performance on diverse datasets [40]. As per this, FL has appeared to be among the future new digital health infrastructure technologies. It can facilitate the development of always-learning AI systems to learn to accept patient data in real-time without sacrificing data ownership and integrity. It even can circumvent the regulation and ethics hurdles of centralized health data processing [46]. Applications of AI have expanded exponentially into home patient monitoring. Integration of smart systems into wearables and home installation can monitor vital signs, recognize anomalies, and alert caregivers in real-time. They are extremely well-suited to chronic disease and the elderly. Technical issues regarding data standardization and interoperability still need to be ironed out [50]. The current research has also investigated the increasing ability of AI to interpret complicated biomedical data, such as genomic data, to derive customized diagnoses and therapies. Increasingly, clinicians are being aided by AI software in detecting patterns that are too minute for the human eye, especially in disciplines such as oncology

Table 5 Comparative analysis of prior contributions to data privacy and security

Authors (year)	Related work	Result	Future application
Lyu et al. (2020) [37]	Federated learning privacy and robustness	Identified key attack vectors and proposed defense methods like differential privacy	More secure federated learning in healthcare, finance, and IoT
Rigaki et al. (2020) [47]	Survey of privacy attacks in ML	Developed a taxonomy of attacks and highlighted gaps in existing defenses	AI systems with improved attack resilience and adaptive defense mechanisms
Mireshghallah et al. (2020) [38]	Privacy in deep learning	Reviewed encryption, DP, and secure computation strategies	Private DL deployment in autonomous systems and cloud-based platforms
Zhu et al. (2020) [63]	Role of differential privacy in AI	Showed multi-benefit of DP in fairness, robustness, and security	Privacy-first AI in social platforms, education, and recommendation engines
Chanal et al. (2021) [16]	CI-based approaches to IoT security	Proposed hybrid rule-based and DL-based intrusion detection for resource-limited IoT	Intelligent cybersecurity for smart homes, e-health, and IIoT
Ismail et al. (2023) [31]	AI privacy in healthcare using FL and encryption	Demonstrated privacy techniques for medical imaging and records	Privacy-preserving AI for telemedicine and hospital diagnostics
Sharma et al. (2023) [51]	Legal and ethical analysis of AI in healthcare	Proposed combining blockchain with privacy-preserving AI frameworks	Policy-compliant intelligent healthcare systems with transparency and accountability

and cardiology. Nevertheless, for these systems to prove effective, they need to be stringently tested and regulated through robust ethical guidelines. Ten years from now, AI will play an even larger role in the practice of medicine. The estimates go that AI would not only spearhead diagnosis and treatment but also customize resource planning and optimize care delivery systems. These benefits are paired with concerns over reliance on AI systems, algorithmic bias, and the absence of human touch, which must be judiciously balanced [10]. During these researches, there is an overall consensus: personalized medicine based on AI has a promising future but must be pursued with caution. Most important are things like interdisciplinarity, data privacy, ethical responsibility, and transparency. When they are in the right balance, AI can significantly enhance the quality, effectiveness, and accessibility of care [10, 34, 40, 46, 50].

Table 6 Comparative analysis of prior contributions in AI in personalized healthcare

Authors (year)	Related work	Result	Future application
Johnson et al. (2021) [34]	Integration of AI with precision medicine for personalized care	Demonstrated improved diagnostic accuracy and individualized treatment planning	Enhancing patient-specific care models and predictive diagnostics
Nguyen et al. (2021) [40]	Federated learning (FL) for privacy-preserving healthcare data analysis	Enabled model training without sharing patient data; maintained data privacy and accuracy	Real-time collaborative diagnosis across hospitals while protecting privacy
Rieke et al. (2020) [46]	Application of FL in digital health systems	Addressed regulatory challenges and supported ethical AI deployment	Development of adaptive, decentralized AI models in hospitals and clinics
Shaik et al. (2023) [50]	AI in remote patient monitoring through wearable and home-based devices	Enabled anomaly detection and reduced hospital readmissions	Continuous remote health tracking, especially for elderly and chronic patients
Asma et al. (2025) [10]	Forecast of AI integration in clinical workflows by 2030 [10]	Predicted AI-supported decision-making and resource optimization	Fully AI-assisted care systems and hospital management processes

Table 6 summarizes various studies focused on the use of AI in personalized healthcare and treatment, including federated learning, remote monitoring, genomics, and the development of ethical and privacy-preserving AI solutions.

3.7 AI in Drug Discovery and Development in Computational Intelligence

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is now a change driver in drug development and discovery, making operations far more efficient, accurate, and innovative in pharmaceutical research. Explainable AI (XAI) application in drug discovery operations, as emphasized by Jiménez-Luna et al. [33], enables researchers to interpret decision-making behind complex deep learning models. This is particularly important in the pharma industry where model explainability is crucial for regulatory clearance and clinician acceptance. The authors discussed various methods such as attention mechanisms and feature attribution to enhance model interpretability and enable collaboration between AI systems and domain experts. Generative models are another field with explosive growth in drug discovery. Bian and Xie [13] have investigated the application of generative deep learning networks like variational autoencoders (VAEs) and generative adversarial networks (GANs) to generate new chemical compounds.

Diversely structured and chemically correct molecules optimized for drug-like characteristics are generated by the models autonomously. Not only does this decrease reliance on traditional libraries but also speeds up lead discovery with a potential time and cost savings of years of research and millions of dollars. A wider overview of AI utilization in the drug discovery pipeline is offered by Deng et al. [19, 20]. They discussed different machine learning methods—such as support vector machines, deep neural networks, and ensemble techniques—applied to predict molecular properties, target identification, and virtual screening. The paper also discusses the issue with sparsity of data, overfitting, and generalizability of AI models, demanding robust validation procedures and high-quality data rendering them clinically relevant. The application of AI does not simply end at discovery but progresses to development as highlighted by Paul et al. [41]. Their work is representative of the use of AI in pharmacokinetics (PK), pharmacodynamics (PD), and predicting toxicity. By processing large sets of biological and clinical data, AI models can predict drug behavior within the body and detect side effects at early pipeline stages. This predictive ability not only avoids late-stage failures but also increases drug efficacy and safety, providing a pharma innovation competitive advantage. [53] concerned with technology development and real-world application of AI in the area of pharma sciences. They highlight uses of AI technology such as IBM Watson and Google DeepMind for high-throughput screening, data mining, and molecular docking purposes. The paper also discusses the application of AI in personalized medicine where algorithms process patient-specific genomic information to recommend tailored drug therapy, maximizing therapeutic benefit and minimizing adverse side effects. Explanatory analysis of AI is examined in-depth in research by Alizadehsani et al. [5], which summarizes novel XAI methods and their application in pharmaceutical modeling. They categorize XAI techniques into model-agnostic and model-specific techniques and describe their performance on real problems. The author's view is that making AI models interpretable is essential for building trust, accountability, and acceptance in clinical and regulatory settings. They also suggest creating user-friendly platforms and standard benchmarks to evaluate XAI tools in drug discovery. Table 7 summarizes key research on AI in drug discovery, covering areas like explainable AI, generative models, ML techniques, pharmacokinetics, personalized medicine, real-world applications, and future directions including ethics and quantum computing.

3.8 Smart Cities and Sustainable Development in Computational Intelligence

The past few years have witnessed the growing international research that focuses on the interlinkage between sustainable development and smart cities. According to Jiménez-Luna et al. [33], the purpose of smart cities extends beyond technological advancement; they are also a tool for achieving Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Smart solutions like efficient use of energy, water management, waste

Table 7 Comparative analysis of prior contributions in drug discovery and development

Authors (year)	Focus area	Key contribution
Jiménez-Luna et al. (2020) [33]	Explainable AI (XAI) in drug discovery	Techniques to interpret black-box ML models for transparency and trust
Bian et al. (2020) [13]	Generative models for molecule design	Use of VAEs and GANs to generate novel drug compounds
Deng et al. (2021) [19, 20]	ML techniques in drug development	Overview of algorithms like SVM, DNN, and ensemble models for target prediction
Paul et al. (2020) [41]	AI in pharmacokinetics and toxicity prediction	AI's role in reducing late-stage drug failures through accurate PK/PD modeling
Sultana et al. (2025) [53]	Industry application and personalized medicine	Use of IBM Watson, DeepMind; patient-specific AI for precision treatments
Alizadehsani et al. (2023) [5]	Explainable AI in real-world drug modeling	Comparison of XAI tools calls for user-friendly interfaces and regulatory integration

control, and digital governance all directly translate to some of the SDGs. However, the study also indicated potential trade-offs that must be balanced to achieve integral development. The article emphasized how mass data collection and processing facilitated policymaking to become more accurate and citizen-centric. Data may become useful to measure environmental impacts, track citizens' needs, and improve the quality of smart services. Mylonas et al. [39] emphasized the use of circular economy principles for smart cities. Moving away from the traditional 'use-and-dispose' pattern, smart cities are increasingly adopting recycling, reuse, and measures of resource efficiency. This combination gives birth to the new concept of the "Smart and Circular City," where technology and sustainability go hand in hand. According to Ishaq and Farooq [30], the Internet of Things (IoT) forms the basis of smart cities. The study highlighted how sensors, networks, and data analytics bring efficiency to traffic management, waste collection, and water supply. It also raised issues on data privacy, cybersecurity, and scalability that need to be solved. Titled edge computing a robust future technology for smart cities that enables local data processing instead of relying on faraway cloud servers. This improves decision-making time and reduces network reliance—particularly critical in real-time city services like traffic control and emergency response. Table 8 summarizes the authors' research from 2020 to 2025 on Smart Cities and Sustainable Development, highlighting work on SDG integration, circular economy applications, data-driven urban sustainability, and IoT-based solutions with their benefits and challenges.

Table 8 Comparative analysis of prior contributions in smart cities and sustainable

Authors (year)	Titles	Key focus area
Jiménez et al. (2020) [33]	Smart cities and sustainable development goals (SDGs): a systematic literature review	Relationship between smart cities and SDGs, co-benefits and trade-offs
Mylonas et al. (2024) [39]	When circular economy meets the smart city ecosystem: defining the smart and circular city	Integration of circular economy concepts into smart city planning
Ishaq et al. (2023) [30]	Exploring IoT in smart cities: practices, challenges and way forward	Use of IoT in smart cities, benefits and challenges

4 Need for Continuous Research and Policy Development

The pace at which Computational Intelligence (CI), i.e., artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning (ML), and neural networks, is evolving is revolutionizing all sectors—whether healthcare, finance, or transport. With increasing complexity, there must be a sustained research push to guide their development onto a positive and ethical trajectory. The potential of CI to come up with solutions to stubborn problems is immense, as immense is the danger if done at the cost of appropriate ethical and regulation handling. Most important of all to CI's future potential might be to become able to make its own decisions. With smart systems coming into the forefront in high-risk domains such as medical diagnosis, autonomous cars, and stock market predictions, there is a greater demand for explainability and transparency of the systems [21]. Explainable AI (XAI), adversarial robustness, and fairness studies will have a central role to play in building credibility and trust in these systems. If not, CI can be used as a means of injecting bias, discriminatory decisions, or manipulation by malicious forces. Policymaking must keep up with technological progress. Many countries are drafting AI legislation, but the majority of the policies are reactive, not proactive. To guide CI to an ethical and sustainable path, governments must incorporate agile, adaptive regulatory systems that can keep up with the accelerating pace of technological innovation. For example, the policy will have to respond to concerns over deepfakes, algorithmic discrimination, and monitoring as well as promoting responsible innovation and data protection. The European Union's upcoming AI Act is in the right direction in the sense that it provides a risk-based, framework approach to AI deployment regulation. Transnational development constitutes part of the regulatory challenges of CI. Information and innovation can so easily be switched from geography to geography, and domestic regulation cannot suffice to regulate them. There is thus an urgent need for global cooperation to bring forth common ethical standards and inconsistent regulatory standards. Governments, business communities, and academies getting together on a global platform can offer homogeneous practices of AI and prevent regulatory patchwork which can impede development or bring about misuse. Interdisciplinarity is also essential to the future

of CI. Ethical, legal, and social issues must be integrated into technical design within intelligent systems. Computer scientists and computer engineers must work alongside lawyers, sociologists, and philosophers to make sure that new technologies are good for society as well as for human rights. This makes AI systems intelligent but also socially aware and committed to long-term human welfare. Transparency and public awareness should be supplemented by guiding correct computational intelligence development. Members of society should be trained and engaged in public debate on the use of such technologies in society. Open-source software development, AI ethics councils, and industry watchdog boards can be leveraged to guide CI technologies according to public values and minimize harm. Apart from this, educational institutions have to educate the next generations with the ability to do and know and cultivate CI in the years to come. Computational intelligence is now gaining ground in related fields of emotional intelligence of computers, brain-computer interfaces, and general intelligence. All these operations are technologically challenging as well as include some quintessential inbuilt moral ethics matters. Review cycles of policy and foresight research must be a component of the CI culture. This would help in enabling the laws to catch up with evolving technology.

5 Conclusion

The future of computer intelligence is being transformed in ways that are recapturing companies and recasting human–computer interfaces. Artificial intelligence, machine learning, and deep learning are evolving rapidly, and augmented with the latest technologies such as quantum computing, biotechnology, and the Internet of Things, they are releasing new possibilities. The innovations are transforming AI systems into more intelligent, more efficient, and capable of handling intricate issues that were not even thought of previously. From healthcare to space, AI-driven innovations are constructing a better, cleaner, science-driven, and more economically robust future. But all these innovations have colossal challenges to be addressed judiciously. Ethics, privacy safeguarding, and security are key concerns to be addressed judiciously. In a bid to establish trust and prevent unwanted impacts, AI development should be anchored in principles of openness, accountability, and equity. Governments, academia, and industry need to join forces to establish regulatory frameworks and ethical guidelines that make AI a force for good in society. Over the coming years, the combination of computing power with human imagination and choice will redefine the frontier of problem-solving. An emphasis on explainable AI, decentralized computing, and environmentally friendly AI models will lead to more and more transparent systems. With the increasingly widespread deployment of AI in day-to-day life, ongoing research and responsive policy will be the key to releasing its full potential while restricting potential risks. Through ethics-driven AI research and innovation, human beings can develop a future in which computational capability adds to human capacity in every direction, with stunning advancements in science, technology, and society.

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Core Technologies and Innovations

Reinforcement Learning: Emerging Trends and Challenges

Narges Mashhadihajiali and Mehdy Roayaei

Abstract Reinforcement Learning (RL) has become a significant subject in Artificial Intelligence (AI), allowing systems to learn and adapt by interacting with their environment. This resembles how humans and animals learn through trial and error. RL helps machines improve their decision making by responding to rewards and penalties. What once seemed nearly impossible, like mastering video games using only raw pixel data, is now achievable through deep reinforcement learning. In fact, RL agents can outperform humans in complex tasks, often without direct supervision. In this chapter, we explore the latest developments in RL, including model-based methods, policy optimization techniques, and real-world deployments.

Keywords Reinforcement learning · Multi-agent · Quantum learning · Meta · Distributional · Safe · Ensemble · LLM

1 Introduction

The idea of Reinforcement learning dates back to the early days of cybernetics, and it has evolved since the 1950s. In this problem, an agent must learn a policy through trial and error while interacting with a dynamic environment. Reinforcement Learning solves this problem by modelling it as a Markov Decision Process (MDP), which has states, actions, a transaction function, a reward function, and a discount factor. It tries to find an optimal policy by maximizing the cumulative reward. This can be episodic or continuous for the agent.

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2 Modern RL

In RL, agents learn how to improve decision making by trial-and-error to maximize cumulative rewards. It is different from supervised and unsupervised learning because it relies on trial-and-error experiences instead of labeled data or pattern discovery. In RL problems, the best actions are discovered by agents without clear instructions or knowledge of the environment. By incorporating concepts from optimal control, dynamic programming, and behavioral psychology, RL forms a unique bridge between theory and behavior-based learning. The core RL framework is modelled as a Markov Decision Process (MDP), where S is the Set of states, A is the set of actions, $p(s'|s, a)$ is the probability of moving to state s' after taking action a in state s. $R(s, a)$ is the

$$M = (S, A, P, R, \gamma) \tag{1}$$

reward function, which shows the reward received after taking action a in state s. Finally, $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ is the discount factor, representing the importance of future rewards.

This framework includes states, actions, rewards, and policies. At time period t, the agent observes a *state* from the set of states denoted as s_t. Through a sequence of actions, the agent transfers from one state to another, receiving feedback in the form of rewards and refining its policy to improve long-term outcomes. The primary objective is to learn an optimal policy that maximizes the expected sum of rewards over time. Here, the goal is to learn a policy $\pi(a|s)$, which defines the probability of taking action a in state s, that maximizes the expected return:

$$G_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1} \tag{2}$$

The value function for policy π is:

$$V^{\pi} = \mathrm{E}_{\pi}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+K+1} | S_t = s\right] \tag{3}$$

The action-value function (Q-function) is:

$$Q^{\pi}(s, a) = \mathrm{E}_{\pi}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+K+1} | S_t = s, A_t = a\right] \tag{4}$$

The optimal policy π^* is the one that maximizes the value function for all states:

$$\pi^* = \arg\max_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s) \quad \forall s \in S \tag{5}$$

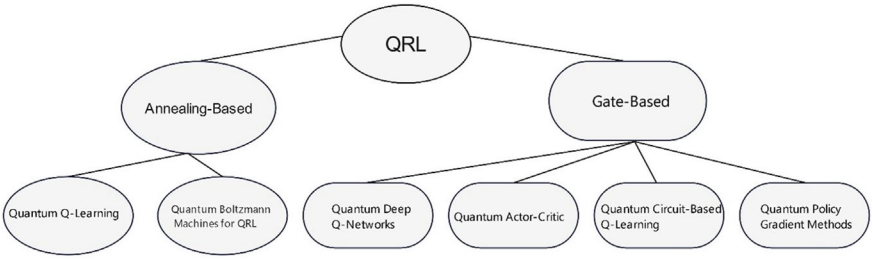

Fig. 1 Neural network in reinforcement learning

or,

$$Q^*(s, a) = \max_{\pi} Q^{\pi}(s, a) \tag{6}$$

With the integration of deep learning, modern RL has advanced significantly. Deep Reinforcement Learning (DRL) is the result of combining deep learning and RL. DRL uses neural network modeling in traditional RL algorithms. This allows agents to process high-dimensional data and environments, such as images, utilizing neural networks. A notable example in this field is Deep Q-Learning, where an agent learns control policies directly from raw input data. Usually, when classical RL faces challenges or limitations due to large and complex state space or action space, DRL is used. Figure 1 depicts neural network in reinforcement learning.

3 Emerging Trends

Despite advancements, RL faces challenges and limitations. For instance, in the exploration–exploitation trade-off, sparse or delayed rewards, safety, and the need for sample-efficient learning. Utilizing RL in the real world requires addressing these. Today, RL powers many AI applications, including robotics, autonomous vehicles, healthcare, finance, and even the fine-tuning of large language models through RL. This chapter provides a foundational overview of the most important new trends in RL, including:

- Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning
- Meta Reinforcement Learning
- Ensemble Reinforcement Learning
- Safe Reinforcement Learning
- Quantum Reinforcement Learning
- Distributional Reinforcement Learning
- LLM Reinforcement Learning.

3.1 Multi-agent Reinforcement Learning

A multi-agent system consists of several distributed agents that can make autonomous decisions. They can interact with each other in a shared environment, and a specific goal is given to each agent. These tasks may require different skills for developing intelligent behavior. Depending on the nature of the task, different scenarios may happen between the agents. Unlike in single-agent scenarios, the value function in a multi-agent system is influenced not only by an agent's policy but also by the policies of other agents. The optimal strategy for an agent can be found by both its policy and the strategies of the other agents.

3.1.1 Markov Games

Markov games, also known as stochastic games, are the fundamental mathematical framework for multi-agent reinforcement learning. They extend the context of MDPs to multiple agents.

The reward function is deeply tied to how agents interact, and the relationship between agents can be categorized based on the type of their interaction

- **Cooperative setting**: All agents work together towards the same goal of trying to win. In this type, the reward function encourages collaboration.
- **Adversarial**: In this type of setting, agents have opposing goals. Consider a game like chess, in which one's win is another's loss.
- **Mixed setting**: agents have a mix of goals. Sometimes, it is aligned and sometimes conflicting. in this case, dynamics can shift over time.

Centralized training with decentralized execution is a popular approach in MARL. Agents have access to shared information during training, but they act independently at test time, using only local observations. This structure allows the system to remain scalable and efficient. One of the key challenges is non-stationary. This happens because agents learn and adapt simultaneously, and each agent perceives the environment as constantly changing. This violates the stationary assumption in traditional RL. Techniques like opponent modeling, shared critics, or stabilized experience replay help mitigate this.

The credit assignment problem arises in cooperative MARL. In this case, when a team receives a reward, it is not clear how much each agent has received a reward. Solutions that are designed to better isolate individual impact include COMA (Counterfactual Multi-Agent Policy Gradients) and difference rewards. this idea shaped the design of successful algorithms like MADDPG, QMIX, and IQL.

Game theory is a mathematical framework used to study how multiple decision-makers or agents strategically interact with each other in a shared environment. It is originally rooted in economics and provides the theoretical backbone for analyzing strategic behavior in MARL. in multi-agent systems, agents learn policies to maximize their objectives, however, their success depends on what other agents do. This

is similar to the setting that game theory introduces. The central concept is the Nash Equilibrium (NE). It is a situation where no agent can improve its outcomes just by changing its strategy while others keep theirs the same. Not always are Nash Equilibria unique and easy to find. Moreover, some of them might not be good from a team or fairness perspective. That's why there are other, more flexible concepts:

- **Nash Equilibrium**: A relaxed version of NE. Agents only want to change their strategy if it would improve their outcome by more than a small value.
- **Correlated Equilibrium (CE)**: Agents can get a shared signal (like a hint or recommendation) before acting. As long as no one benefits from ignoring the signal, the strategies are stable.
- **Coarse Correlated Equilibrium (CCE)**: Even more relaxed. Agents just look at their expected rewards overall, not specific to a signal. If they wouldn't benefit by changing strategies on average, it's a CCE.
- **Perfect Equilibrium**: A stronger form of NE. It makes sure agents consider even rare or unexpected moves and still stay with their strategy. This ensures more robust and realistic planning.

3.2 Meta Reinforcement Learning

Deep reinforcement learning has been very successful at teaching agents how to perform complex tasks just by exploring their environment. However, in the real world, intelligent agents often have to learn many related works. For instance, when a robot has already learned how to vacuum, this experience might be helpful and guide it to mop more quickly by utilizing the past knowledge. It is a kind of knowledge that can guide the exploration of a new task. That is where meta-learning, or learning to learn, comes in. Meta learning helps agents to learn general strategies that can quickly adapt to new tasks using experiences from previous tasks.

In a regular reinforcement learning setup, there is a task that the agent tries to learn. However, in meta reinforcement learning, there is a distribution of tasks. For example, different levels of a video game or different chores that the robot from the previous example has to do. In this method, the agent is not trained on a fixed task. There are multiple tasks. But at the start, one of them is randomly picked to simulate how the agent might face a new challenge in the future. Once this task is seen by the agent, it is allowed to interact with it to get familiar and gain some experience. Later, the agent uses its experience to update its policy and gets better at the task. The agent is trained on its initial policy to be easy to fine-tune on other new tasks it will see in the future. This way, the agent can be adaptable and quick to learn. In conclusion, the agent learns how to learn new tasks and how to quickly figure out the right policy in new situations using minimal experience.

3.2.1 Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) Based Meta-Learners

RNN-based meta-learners attempt to solve the meta-RL problem by using a recurrent neural network. In this method, the model is trained over several episodes across various tasks. The RNN takes the past trajectories, states, actions, and rewards and outputs the next action. The internal memory of RNN allows it to remember and adapt. There are several advantages to this method. For instance, the adaptation process happens implicitly through the RNN's memory. Secondly, fast decision making happens through a single forward pass. However, RNNs aim to maximize reward quickly, and this leads to low exploration. Also, exploration requires stochastic or randomized behavior to try diverse strategies, but RNNs tend to encode deterministic or low-variance policies, which are weak at exploration.

3.2.2 Gradient-Based Meta-Learners

These models, such as Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning (MAML), are designed to find a strong initialization of policy parameters that can be quickly fine-tuned to new tasks using only a few gradient steps. Gradient descent is leveraged in these models, providing solid theoretical grounding. However, MAML has some notable limitations. For example, it lacks structured exploration and focuses on rapid adaptation. To overcome this, MAESN (Model-Agnostic Exploration with Structured Noise) was introduced. MAESN builds on MAML by adding a latent variable space that enables structured, coherent exploration. It meta-learns both policy parameters and the latent distribution, allowing fast adaptation and more effective exploration from the start [1].

3.3 Ensemble Reinforcement Learning

Ensemble Reinforcement Learning (ERL) incorporates both deep learning and ensemble learning theories. For complex patterns in data, deep learning is great, and ensemble learning combines several models to make a decision. This process improves generalization and robustness. The idea is that in this way, deep ensembles can generalize better across different tasks or data distributions, and the final model can benefit from each sub-model's unique strength in handling specific problems [2].

3.3.1 Bias Variance Decomposition

The model's error can be broken down into bias, variance, and noise, or irreducible noise. A high Bias happens when the model underfits the data and makes overly simplistic assumptions. In contrast, when the model is too complex and sensitive to

the training data, a high variance occurs, leading to overfitting. The error coming from the randomness of the data is the noise or irreducible error.

Ensemble learning methods help in mitigating bias and variance errors. For instance, bagging methods like random forest help variance reduction by averaging models to get a smoother prediction. Models like boosting help by sequentially training models. In this way, each new model corrects the mistakes of the previous one. Models like AdaBoost, Gradient Boosting, Light GBM, and Catboost are among boosting ensemble learners. This strategy helps with bias error by building a strong learner from a set of multiple weak learners. Stacking can also help with combining the predictions from several models of different types. For example, decision trees, SVMs, and neural nets. This helps reduce both bias and variance by getting different patterns from the data.

Based on the classic work of Thomas Dietterich. In machine learning, the best hypothesis or model is always sought from a space of several different ones. But in reality, we often have limited data, which makes it hard to find the best model. This means that there is a high chance of picking a model that performs well on training data but is overfitting. In this scenario, instead of committing to one single model, EL combines multiple models.

3.3.2 Diversity Perspective

Diversity means that individual models should make different kinds of errors or view the problem from different angles. EL methods like random forest introduce diversity by using different subsets of the training data (bagging) or using random subsets of features. Diversity gives flexibility to adapt to different usage and needs, along with reducing the risk that all models make the same wrong decision.

Decision Strategies in Ensemble Reinforcement Learning

Voting: The idea is to count how many models suggest each of the possible actions. The final decision is the action that has got the most votes. This is used in discrete action spaces with possibilities such as left or right.

Optimal combination: Since not all the base models are equal, it is better to select only the ones with the best performance. First, the performance of the models should be evaluated, then a subset of top models will be chosen to give votes or for combining their outputs. This is mostly used in classification problems.

Binning: This method divides the action space into intervals or bins. Afterward, it counts how many predictions fall into each of the bins. Then, the bin with the most predictions will be chosen. In the end, the average of the values inside the bin will be the final action.

Aggregation: In this method, all the models are equally trustworthy. The final decision will be based on the average or total of all outputs.

Weighted Aggregation: Unlike the simple aggregation method, here, more weight will be given to the better-performing models. The final decision will be based on the weighted sum of predictions.

Stacking: There is another machine learning model involved. This model will further predict the result of base models. This second-level model learns to make better final predictions.

Boltzmann multiplication: This method is inspired by Boltzmann distribution. First, the probability for each action is calculated using Boltzmann distribution. Then, the action with the highest probability will be chosen. This strategy is stochastic because it adds some randomness based on probabilities.

3.3.3 Ensemble Strategies for Q-Function

In the context of the Q function, this means combining multiple Q-networks to form a more accurate estimate of the expected return. This is especially useful in high-dimensional spaces like complex games, noisy or sparse reward environments, and cases where the agent suffers from over or underestimation bias.

3.3.4 Ensemble Strategies for Reward Function

Designing smart reward functions matters, and it is not just about getting high scores. It is important to teach the agent what really matters, helps it prioritize better actions and helps avoiding bad habits caused by misleading feedback. Rather than relying on a single reward function, multiple reward functions can be combined to offer a more comprehensive signal [3].

3.4 Safe Reinforcement Learning

Safety is one of the crucial areas in RL. It focuses on optimizing rewards while considering safety in the real world. It is especially important in applications like autonomous driving, robotics, healthcare, and recommender systems. Safe RL is often modeled as Constrained Markov Decision Processes (CMDPs). In this setting, agents must satisfy safety constraints while maximizing rewards. There are 5 main questions regarding safe RL:

- **Safety Policy**: How can the policy optimization be performed to find a safe policy?
- **Safety Complexity**: How much training data is required to find a safe policy?
- **Safety Applications**: What is the up-to-date progress of safe RL applications?
- **Safety Benchmarks**: What benchmarks can be used in order to fairly and holistically examine safe RL performance?

- **Safety Challenges**: What are the challenges faced in future safe RL research?

Safe RL methods can be categorized into model-based and free-model approaches. Models-based approaches utilize techniques like policy optimization, control theory, formal methods, and Gaussian processes for better learning efficiency. Model-free methods do not require model dynamics, and they focus on policy optimization and safe exploration. Multi-agent safe RL extends these methods to systems with multiple agents, addressing challenges like scalability, reward-cost trade-offs, and heterogeneous constraints. Below, some of the RL safety methods are mentioned:

- **Primal–Dual Approaches**: Solve CMDPs utilizing Lagrangian optimization.
- **Constrained Policy Optimization**: Trust Region Policy Optimization (TRPO) and First Order Constrained Optimization (FOCOPS) techniques ensure safety during training.
- **Sampling Complexity**: Investigates the data requirements for achieving safe policies.

Some applications of safe RL include autonomous driving, where safe RL is used for motion planning, lane keeping, and high-level decision making. In robotics, methods like Lyapunov functions, safety layers, and model-based RL ensure safe robot control. Other examples can be in recommender systems, video compression, and chemical processes [4].

3.5 Quantum Reinforcement Learning

In reinforcement learning problems, as the environments become more complex, sometimes the computational power of computers might not be sufficient. In this case, other alternative approaches should be sought. For example, curriculum learning is a type of learning in which the environment gradually gets complicated. There are also hardware-based alternative approaches, such as distributed reinforcement learning and quantum-assisted reinforcement learning [5].

3.5.1 Quantum Computing

In classical computing, a bit is either 0 or 1. In quantum computing, a quantum bit (qubit) can be in a 0 or 1 state like classical bits, and both states as well, which is called superposition. When there are multiple qubits, for example, n of them, the entire system is in a superposition of 2^n states. This gives an exponential power in a small system, unlike parallel computing, where the same number of processors is needed to compute. This is the magic of quantum parallelism. This super ability of quantum computers makes them suitable for computationally intensive tasks. So, it is possible to obtain significant improvements in how agents learn from environments by processing many scenarios in parallel.

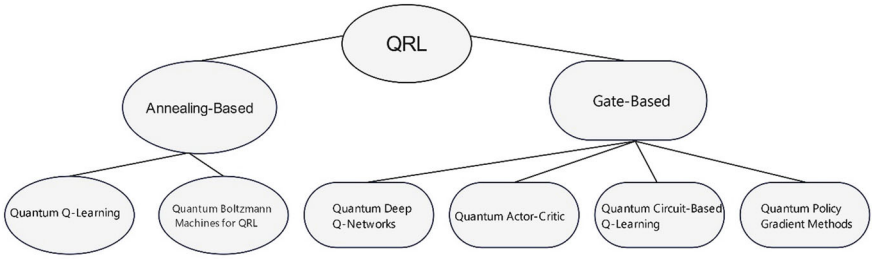

Fig. 2 Algorithms in quantum reinforcement learning

One of the important keys is that this superposition is only for computation. When the system is observed or it needs to make a real-world decision. It collapses into one concrete option. It can be said that this process resembles how a spinning coin lands either on heads or tails. These are the real states or actions in QRL that are called eigen states or eigen actions. The rest of all the superpositions are tools to help learning and exploration. The classification of QRL algorithms is depicted in Fig. 2. Two common approaches to quantum computing are annealing-based quantum computing and gate-based quantum computing.

3.5.2 Quantum Annealing

In quantum annealing, qubits are brought in an initial superposition state, where they represent all possible solutions at once. Afterwards, a mathematical model called Hamiltonian is applied. If this model is applied gently and slowly enough, the system naturally evolves toward the ground state, which is the lowest energy state. The measurement at this stage reveals the answer to the problem. To use quantum annealing, the problem is required to be expressed in a special format, which is quadratic unconstrained binary optimization or Ising formulation. In reinforcement learning, the Q-function helps to decide what action to take in a given state. Quantum annealing can be used for calculating this function. The reinforcement learning problem is mapped to an energy minimization problem, where a quantum annealer gets to the lowest energy state. In this approach, mostly Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs) are used to represent the Q-function or policy. Other types of quantum annealing are annealing-based Q learning, Ising model policy learning, and replica stacking. This approach is naturally suited for combinatorial optimization problems and is less sensitive to quantum noise compared to other quantum computing approaches like gate-based systems. It works best when the RL task is reduced to optimization (e.g., finding best actions, policies). Hardware (like D-Wave) is limited in qubit connectivity and scalability [6].

3.5.3 Gate-Based Quantum Computing

Gate-based quantum computers use qubits. Actions on qubits are called quantum gates. This resembles the logic gates in regular computers. A key difference is that the quantum operations need to be reversible, meaning the operation can be undone. In gate-based quantum computing, a sequence of operations gets performed on qubits in a precise order. In the end, the system ends up in a quantum state that encodes possible outcomes. However, only one result is available after the measurement. The chance of getting that result depends on the probability amplitude, which is squared to get the actual probability [5].

3.6 Distributional Reinforcement Learning

In the traditional form of reinforcement learning, an agent tries to maximize its expected utility or value, which is called the Q-function. This tells us how good it is to take action in state x. In the Bellman's equation, the idea is to show that the value of an action is the expected immediate reward plus the expected future value. Distributional reinforcement learning introduces a new perspective of the value. Instead of just learning the expected value. It tries to learn the full distribution of possible returns. This is going to tell us all the possible outcomes of taking action a in state x, not just the average.

Distributional RL has great math behind it. When the estimated reward gets updated using the Bellman operator, the distance between the true and estimated distribution shrinks. This property is called contraction under the Wasserstein distance. This is a way of comparing two distributions. This property guarantees that learning is stable and will converge to the correct distribution. If we switch from evaluation to control, where the agent actively tries to find the best policy, the Bellman operation involves choosing the action that leads to the best future outcomes. In this case, when the full distribution is involved, the Bellman operator is no longer a contraction. Mathematically, learning becomes unstable, and the agent might not be able to find the best policy easily. Still, with this challenge, using the full distribution is very helpful. It is often needed to know uncertain outcomes are and not just the average. Especially in areas where the events are sensitive like in healthcare and finance. In cases where the policy is still changing, having the full distribution helps the model adjust more flexibly. Sometimes, the average hides important patterns, and outcomes can be multimodal. In such cases, instead of centering around one outcome, the outcomes cluster around multiple distinct possibilities.

3.6.1 Advantages of Distributional Reinforcement Learning

Chattering refers to the instability in value estimation using the Bellman optimality operator. This is like never settling down during training. By modeling full distributions instead of just the expected return, learning smooths out the noisy updates. This leads to more stable training, even when approximating.

When different world situations look the same to the agent, state aliasing happens. This situation can make the environment appear stochastic even when it is deterministic. Modeling a distribution over possible returns captures the uncertainty and helps learning stay stable.

In traditional RL, we predict a single number, which is the expected return. However, predicting a probability distribution gives a richer, more informative signal. This is similar to predicting a histogram of what could happen, not just an average [7].

In simple settings like tabular or linear approximations, there is little to no difference between classic and distributional RL. The reason is that the environment can be captured cleanly without approximation noise. The real difference happens when we have a non-linear function approximation. Modeling distributions improves learning in deep networks [8].

3.7 LLM Reinforcement Learning

Large Language Models, or LLMs, refer to big neural networks containing billions of parameters built on the transformer architecture. These models are trained on massive text data such as books, forums, and codes in a TB scale. The massive number of parameters and the scale of the data they are trained on enables them to do a set of enhanced tasks, such as generating texts, storing knowledge, and reasoning logically. As the amount of data that are trained on increases and the number of their parameters gets bigger, they exhibit more abilities that can not be seen in smaller models.

These models have in-context learning abilities, meaning there is no need to retrain them for every new task, as they can give responses by seeing similar examples. For example, if the model gets to know how to do a task in the prompt, it can pick up the pattern and imitate it. By training on a lot of tasks which are described like instructions, models learn to understand and follow natural language instructions.

LLMs can understand and solve complex tasks better when advanced prompting techniques are used instead of expecting a one-shot answer. Some of the multi-step reasoning techniques are chain of thought, tree of thought, and graph of thought, which are explained below.

- Chain of Thought (CoT): Think of this as solving a problem by writing out your thoughts step by step, like showing your work in math class.

- Tree of Thought (ToT): This is more like branching decision making. The model explores multiple possible paths of reasoning, resembling a decision tree.
- Graph of Thought (GoT): Even more advanced, this method lets the model build a web of interconnected ideas or reasoning steps, like a mental map.

Although LLMs are powerful tools, they still make mistakes, and sometimes are not natural. For instance, the generated text is natural but too well-organized. This issue is because of how they were trained and how their performance is measured.

One of the helpful approaches for improvement is utilizing reinforcement learning. This way, LLMs can learn by evaluation of their behavior so their performance can get closer to what users want. For example, RL can be added to the training of language models to make them meet specific goals. Usually, LLMs are firstly trained using supervised learning. This is a type of learning that happens from a massive set of data with examples of the correct output. But not always this kind of training can help the model stay consistent and accurate during long and complex conversations. With RL model can be fine-tuned to handle more complex and specific tasks. Reversely, LLMs can also benefit RL models. Some examples of this are given below:

- Multimodal Information: When LLM is integrated into a reinforcement learning setting, it enables the agent to handle more than one type of data. For example, text and image. In this way, instead of only understanding one type of data, the agent can interpret natural language and visual information, like screenshots.
- Multi-task learning: LLMs have been trained on a wide variety of data and tasks, which makes them adaptable to different contexts. When used in RL, the agent can learn multiple tasks at once and generalize better to new tasks.
- Improved sample efficiency: In standard form, agents require big amount of data for exploring the environment and learning, which is inefficient. In this case, the prior knowledge of LLMs can be utilized to guide exploration more efficiently. LLMs can also help to simulate the environments, reducing the number of needed samples, which makes the training faster.
- Long- horizon handling: In long tasks, such as playing games for hours, it is hard for agents to find the actions that lead to success. This issue is called the credit assignment problem. Here, LLMs can break down long tasks into smaller subtasks. Making it easier to plan and learn over time.
- Reward Signal Generation: In some cases, rewards in environments are sparse and rare. This makes the process of policy learning hard for the agent. LLM can utilize its context understanding and domain knowledge to shape the reward function. It can guide the agent by giving intermediate rewards even when the final reward is still far from being reached [9].

There are different types of combinations of RL and LLMs, which can be categorized as follows:

- RL4LLM: In this setting, RL is used for LLM performance improvement.
- LLM4RL: This is where an LLM assists in the training of an RL model.
- RL + LLM: An RL model and an LLM cooperate, without either contributing to the training or fine-tuning of the other [10].

4 Challenges in Modern Reinforcement Learning

RL has made significant strides over the last several years, leading to impressive advancements in applications from gaming to robotics to resource management. Nevertheless, RL still has essential challenges that must be tackled in order to boost its adoption and applicability for practice problems. These issues must be overcome for the field to advance and realize its full potential.

We elaborate on five key challenges that the RL community must address in this section:

- **Scalability**: RL methods are often not scalable to real-world problems that involve large state and action spaces, and/or multi-agent environments. Computational and memory demands, combined with a need to preserve performance, still represent an acute challenge.
- **Safety and Robustness:** In especially safety–critical domains (health-care, finance, autonomous systems), ensuring that RL agents act safely and reliably both during training and deployment is an important issue. Resistance to adversarial conditions and environmental uncertainties further complicates this challenge.
- **Interpretability**: RL models, particularly those using deep neural networks, commonly operate as black boxes. This opacity presents issues in explaining, debugging, and gaining confidence in their decisions, especially in high-stakes systems.
- **Sample Inefficiency**: RL approaches often rely on many interactions with the environment to find policies that do a good job. This inefficiency is particularly problematic in settings where collecting data is expensive, slow, and time-consuming.
- **Non-Stationarity**: Many real-world environments have temporal changes, and static RL policies cannot work in such environments. Learning under uncertainty and adapting to dynamic environmental conditions is a significant challenge.
- **Generalization and Transfer Learning**: RL agents tend to struggle with generalization to tasks or environments that differ even slightly from the one in which they were trained. This allows for fast training and better performance, as it can lead to strong generalization across many different scenarios and allow agents to transfer across tasks or environments. However, it has been a challenging problem to design effective mechanisms for both.

In the remainder of the section, we will describe each of the challenges in more detail.

4.1 Scalability

Scalability issues in RL stem from the inherent computational and structural complexities in its different applications. One major consideration is that as systems

become more complex, the search spaces grow exponentially. For example, in self-reconfigurable modular robots, the number of modules creates an increasing number of learning agents interacting simultaneously, leading to a non-stationary environment, which make the coordination of local policies into coordinated global behavior very complicated. Some techniques, such as incremental learning and log-linear representations, have been proposed to tackle scalability challenges by simplifying search spaces and the learning problem [11].

Another important problem in scalability is computational cost. RL typically requires a lot of iterations to converge, which makes it resource-intensive, especially for fine-grained optimization tasks or complex reward functions. Offline RL can handle this issue by using pre-evaluated datasets, which can lead to risks such as like exposure bias and limits the flexibility of RL's data-independent nature [2]. Another, more severe, threat to scalability is reward hacking, the exploitation of imperfect reward models. Nonetheless, progressive solutions, such as combining reasoning task verifiers with generative reward models, have shown better robustness against reward hacking while maintaining model diversity during training.

Scalability also involves equal access to computational resources. Many RL systems demand high-performance hardware that is not available to smaller research labs or institutions in resource-constrained regions. Handling these challenges needs improvements in sample efficiency and having equitable access of computational tools to ensure broader participation in RL researches. Likewise, scalability challenges arise in generative AI applications where RL is used for embedding specific characteristics into outputs. High computational demands and difficulties in quantifying desired properties complicate scaling efforts even more [12].

To handle scalability issues in RL, we need a combination of smarter algorithms, better use of resources, and fair access to computing power. All these steps are very important for helping RL systems in addressing more complex problems in different fields.

4.2 Safety and Robustness

Within RL, safety and robustness are two of the most critical challenges, in particular, in safety–critical applications, such as autonomous vehicles, healthcare, and robotics. To prevent catastrophic failures, it is required to ensure safety during both training and deployment phases. Safety in RL is often formalized using constrained MDP (CMDPs), which take advantage of state and control constraints to ensure that the agent operates within pre-defined safe boundaries. Techniques like control barrier functions (CBFs) have been used in RL to enforce these constraints, although these constraints assume the value functions are smooth and have invariant sets within safe regions, which can limit the scope of their applicability in real-world scenarios [13].

Robustness completes safety by tackling uncertainties in the environment or model parameters. Model-based RL approaches have been proposed to handle parametric uncertainties by combining methods such as barrier transformations and concurrent

learning to learn unknown model parameters and optimal policies at the same time. The methods emphasize balancing safety with performance, but still struggle with being reliant on stringent excitation conditions during learning. Adversarial training has also been investigated to create robustness to perturbations of the environment, making decision more robust even under adversarial conditions [14].

Another aspect of safety and robustness involves ethical issues and human oversight. Human-in-the-loop RL frameworks enable the possibility of human intervention during unsafe actions, although adopting human feedback in a manner that ensures effectiveness remains an obstacle. Moreover, sim-to-real transfer methods are critical for implementing safe and robust RL systems that were trained in simulated environments in dynamic real-world environments [15].

Several research directions can be seen for future work in this area, most important of which are improving uncertainty estimation techniques, developing scalable algorithms for CMDPs, and enhancing robustness against adversarial attacks. Handling and mitigating these challenges will be critical for the responsible deployment of RL systems in different applications [13, 14].

4.3 Interpretability

As RL systems become widely used in critical applications such as healthcare, robotics, and autonomous systems, interpretability becomes more important in RL. The decision making process in RL can often seem like a black box, making it very hard to understand why the agents have made certain choices. The lack of transparency reduce trust in the systems and therefore reduce the RL growth to real-world applications. To address this problem, there is a necessity to prioritize making processes more interpretable, which helps in debugging problems, verifying results, and ensuring ethical use. Because of operating in dynamic environments with non-stationary data distributions, unlike supervised learning, it is more complex for RL to develop interpretable models. To address these challenges, researchers have proposed techniques such as Prototype-Wrapper Networks (PW-Nets), which integrate human-friendly prototypes into RL agents to make their reasoning processes transparent. These methods preserve performance while improving trust calibration and task understanding via user studies [16].

Interactive visualization tools have also been created to improve interpretability by allowing researchers to debug RL policies and inspect agent behavior. These tools prioritize visualization of agent state visitation distributions, influential states, and repetitive patterns in agent actions over time. These visualizations can assist researchers in understanding how RL algorithms learn and how to optimize the landscapes for RL algorithms [17]. In the same manner, the goal of model explanation techniques is to bridge the explainability and interpretability gap by creating interpretable policies that align with human comprehension while maintaining computational feasibility [18].

Although these improvements have been achieved, there remain a number of issues. Interpretability usually requires balancing transparency with model complexity, because simpler models may sacrifice performance. In addition, definition of interpretability itself varies across domains and tasks, making universal solutions difficult [19, 20]. Future work in this area includes further building on visualization tools, sparse logical models optimizing, and introducing domain-specific constraints to improve interpretability without sacrificing effectiveness. These issues must be resolved to enable the development of trust and ensure the deployment of RL systems in actual applications responsibly.

4.4 Sample Inefficiency

Sample inefficiency is a significant challenge in RL, particularly for real-world applications, when it can often be costly or impractical to obtain as much interaction data as an experiment requires. RL algorithms can require millions of samples to be learned good policies, as is the case for AlphaGoZero, which played nearly five million games to acquire a sufficient skill level. This inefficiency arises due to the fact that RL agents tend to learn through trial-and-error interactions with their environment, which can be time-consuming and computationally costly, especially in physical or safety–critical contexts [21].

Several methods have been proposed to address sample inefficiency. Model-based RL relies on environment modeling such that an agent can predict state transitions and rewards, allowing the agent to explore more efficient policies without requiring diverse real-world interactions. These methods can significantly reduce sample requirements but are likely to suffer from accurate modeling of complex environments [21]. Imitation learning is another technique that takes advantage of human demonstrations to provide agents with strong knowledge, which reduces the amount of exploration required to learn an effective policy. For example, the MineRL competition utilized human game-play data to enhance sample efficiency while training RL agents for Minecraft tasks [22].

Off-policy methods, such as experience replay, also minimize sample inefficiency by recycling past interactions stored in memory buffers to iteratively update policies. This minimizes the need for new samples and improves learning stability. Additionally, non-parametric methods and importance sampling techniques have been explored to enhance sample efficiency by focusing on high-impact experiences and reducing variance in policy estimation [23].

Despite these advancements, challenges remain in balancing sample efficiency with computational complexity and ensuring robust performance across different environments. Future research directions include integrating background knowledge from large language models to guide exploration and leveraging hierarchical RL frameworks to decompose tasks into subtasks for more efficient learning [21, 24]. Addressing sample inefficiency is crucial for scaling RL systems to real-world applications while minimizing costs and resource consumption.

4.5 Non-stationarity

One of the main challenges in RL is non stationarity, which violates one of the assumptions in RL which is that the dynamics of the environment (e.g. the outcome of an action or the reward signal) do not change through time. In real-world applications that are dynamic in nature such as traffic signal control, there will always be external most triggering parameters which may change the state of the environment over time or influence actions of other agents. When the environment shifts, that can render learning unstable, because techniques that perform well under one set of conditions may become sub-optimal or even harmful when those conditions change.

To address non-stationarity, various strategies have been developed. One approach involves explicitly modeling environmental changes using frameworks like Behavior-Aware Detection and Adaptation (BADA). BADA identifies shifts in environmental dynamics by analyzing variations in agent behavior through metrics such as Wasserstein distances and adapts policies accordingly without requiring predefined change points. This method has shown promise in maintaining performance across fluctuating conditions by integrating behavior-based regularization to guide policy updates effectively [25].

Another strategy includes augmenting state representations to capture latent contexts or time-dependent features, thereby reducing partial observability and enabling agents to adapt more robustly to changing environments [26]. Multi-agent systems often face compounded non-stationarity due to interactions among agents. Independent Q-learning has been used in such scenarios, allowing each agent to learn localized policies while mitigating the dimensionality issues of centralized training. However, this adds difficulty as the policy changes by one agent changes the environment for the others, making convergence difficult.

Moreover, meta-learning approaches allow agents to adapt rapidly to new situations based on previous experience. These approaches are designed to provide generalization across non-stationary domains by exposing agents to distributions of tasks instead of a stationary single environment [27]. Though these advancements, there are challenges to scale these solutions and also the need for domain independent solution.

Further work could explore more efficient change-detection algorithms based on change-in-accuracy-based predictions, as well as further the applicability of different adaptation mechanisms which can scale upon size of network architecture, such as mechanisms based on off-policy learning techniques to aid robustness against more frequent or abrupt environmental changes. Addressing non-stationarity is critical for deploying RL systems in dynamic and uncertain real-world environments.

5 Future Directions

As RL keeps changing, we're seeing new trends and directions that could really boost what it can do. Today's RL is not just about solving old problems; it's also about trying out new ideas and methods. These updates are set to make RL more flexible and helpful for many real-life issues.

Here are some trends in RL research that are likely to shape its future:

- **Multi-Modal and LLM-Powered Agents**: Using different types of data and LLMs to build agents that can understand and respond to various kinds of input.
- **Multi-Objective Reinforcement Learning**: Creating algorithms that can handle and improve multiple, sometimes conflicting goals in tricky situations.
- **Integration of Structured Knowledge and RL**: Adding specific knowledge to RL agents to make learning faster and decision making smarter.
- **Decentralized Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning (MARL)**: Advancing decentralized approaches for multi-agent systems, so they can work together or compete without a central control.
- **Energy-Efficient and Green RL**: Addressing the environmental effects of RL training by making energy-saving algorithms and using sustainable methods.
- **Causal RL**: Bringing in causal reasoning to improve how RL handles generalization, understanding, and decision making in unpredictable environments.

In the sections to come, we'll dig into each of these topics in detail.

5.1 Multi-modal and LLM-Powered Agents

Multi-modal and LLM-based agents represents an exciting future trend in RL which aim to improve decision making by combining multiple data modality as well using the rich context understanding from LLMs. The focus of Multi-modal RL is on making agents enable to process and learn from heterogeneous inputs, such as visual, auditory, and textual data, which are common in real-world applications like robotics and autonomous systems. Nevertheless, the heterogeneity and dynamic relative importance of different modalities will make effective state representation learning very difficult. Current approaches attempted to overcome the issues by using multi-modal alignment methods and importance enhancement methods that prioritize informative modalities based on task-specific requirements. These innovations have reported improved learning speed and policy quality in multi-modal domains [28].

LLM-enhanced agents strengthen RL by merging natural language understanding into decision making processes. LLMs can provide context, guide exploration, and improve interpretability by generating human-readable explanations of an agent's actions. LLMs can, for instance, transform abstract human instructions into executable policies or refine reward functions to align with objectives. Additionally,

LLMs enable RL agents to seamlessly interact with humans in collaborative settings, further improving their adaptability in dynamic environments.

But bridging multi-modal inputs and LLMs with RL introduces computational expense and scalability concerns. Training agents to efficiently deal with multiple modalities while maintaining robustness under varying environmental conditions is something that requires advanced techniques in representation learning and optimization methods. A few directions for research in the future include the development of scalable multi-modal fusion architectures, more efficient alignment of LLM-generated information with RL policies, and studying hierarchical frameworks that combine multi-modal inputs with LLM reasoning capacity. These developments are essential for creating intelligent agents that can solve complex real-world tasks with greater adaptability and human-like decision making.

5.2 Multi-objective Reinforcement Learning

Over the past few years, Multi-Objective Reinforcement Learning (MORL) has been among the developing subjects in the field of RL, which is to overcome the limitation of single-objective methods by enabling agents to handle multiple, often conflicting objectives at the same time. MORL has many applications in the real-world decision making problems, such as resource allocation or robotic navigation, in which there are trade-offs between conflicting objectives, such as efficiency, safety, and cost. While conventional RL approaches typically merge these objectives into a weighted sum single objective, this simplification may lead to sub-optimal policies and fail to capture the necessary trade-offs in real-world applications [29].

MORL introduces methods to model and optimize more than one explicit objective without aggregating them into a scalar value. The latest advancements in these are Pareto-based techniques, where agents try to compute a set of Pareto-optimal policies that map to different trade-offs between objectives. Such methods allow decision-makers to select solutions based on the specific preferences or constraints of the problem [30]. Further, constrained MORL methods have been proposed in order to ensure that certain objectives, e.g., safety or fairness, are always satisfied while others are optimized. For instance, frameworks like Safe and Balanced MORL includes constraints directly into the learning process to maintain balanced performance across objectives [31].

Another new area in MORL is multi-agent settings, where agents must co-operate or compete while balancing multiple objectives. This research has led to the sub-area of Multi-Objective Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning (MOMARL), which explores how agents can communicate and coordinate policies in multi-agent complicated environments. Also, using AI feedback in MORL has shown encouraging outcomes for re-designing reward functions and shaping agents toward more human-aligned behaviors [32].

Compared to these advances, some challenges still remain to scale up MORL algorithms to high-dimensional problems and make them amenable to use in a wide range

of applications. Some potential future research directions in this area may involve improving computational efficiency, developing better methods for preference elicitation, and designing scalable algorithms that can handle dynamic objective priority shifts. Through the solution of these challenges, MORL can significantly enhance the adaptability and utility of RL systems in real-world applications [30, 32].

5.3 Integration of Structured Knowledge and RL

Integration of Structured Knowledge and RL is an innovative research direction in RL studies, aiming to enhance decision making by integrating domain-specific knowledge into the learning process. Structured knowledge, e.g. knowledge graphs or logical representations, has potential to give informative data that can eventually reduce exploration needs, as well as sample efficacy in complex environments. For example, Deep Q Networks (DQN) have been used to add compressed contexts to knowledge graphs by treating the graph as the environment and operations as actions for context integration. This approach enables RL agents to dynamically update and optimize knowledge graphs, improving their quality and adaptability in dynamic environments [33].

Another approach involves combining Bayesian inference with RL to exploit structured representations of task environments. Structured knowledge learned through approximate Bayesian inference can serve as a source of selective attention, biasing RL agents toward relevant dimensions of the environment. This integration helps mitigate challenges in multi-dimensional decision making by mapping RL policies with human-like reasoning processes [34]. Also, hybrid modeling frameworks have utilized RL to identify optimal model structures and parameters for bioprocess kinetics, demonstrating the utility of structured domain knowledge in enhancing RL-based optimization [35].

Structured knowledge compilation has been employed in multi-agent systems to address combinatorial domains under partial observability. Methods such as propositional logic-based decision diagrams enable agents to query domain constraints efficiently, accelerating episode simulations and improving solution quality in cooperative path-finding tasks [36]. These advances illustrate the benefits of structured knowledge integration in increasing computational efficiency and policy robustness.

Future research directions include the use of scalable algorithms to integrate different forms of structured knowledge, improving methods for dynamic knowledge update during learning, and finding real-world applications such as robotics and healthcare. Integrating structured knowledge into RL systems can make them significantly enhance their adaptability and effectiveness in handling complex problems.

5.4 Decentralized MARL

Decentralized MARL is rapidly evolving discipline whose goal is to enable agents to learn and act independently without needing central control. Decentralized MARL is very popular in real-world applications such as robotics, autonomous vehicles, and sensor networks, in which centralized learning is not possible due to scalability constraints, communication costs, or the need for asynchronous decision making. Unlike most traditional MARL approaches that heavily depend on centralized training with decentralized execution, fully decentralized MARL allows the agents to operate exclusively based on neighborhood communication and local observations.

An interesting development in decentralized MARL involves actor-critic algorithms that are specifically designed for networked agents. These algorithms enable local policy optimization for every agent while sharing value function estimates with neighboring agents to achieve global coordination. Decentralized actor-critic methods, for instance, have been shown to converge effectively in large-scale systems by using function approximation techniques and sparse communication graphs. Such strategies are useful in scenarios where the agents need to optimize a total reward when operating with partial observability or limited knowledge of the other agents' actions [37, 38].

Yet another primary breakthrough in this area is the use of game-theoretic models, such as Stackelberg games, for designing decentralized policies. By modeling other agents as responsive entities, such models enable agents to balance individual objectives with joint team rewards. By using separate critics for individual and global rewards, this approach enables decentralized training while preserving coordination across agents. This has been successfully applied in multi-robot systems where agents optimize both task-specific costs and team-level performance [38].

Despite these advancements, challenges remain in ensuring stability and scalability in fully decentralized MARL settings. Agents must address issues such as non-stationarity caused by simultaneous policy updates and the curse of dimensionality in large-scale systems. Future research directions include improving communication efficiency through adaptive message-passing protocols, developing robust algorithms for highly dynamic environments, and integrating hierarchical frameworks to decompose complex tasks into manageable subtasks. Decentralized MARL holds significant potential for enabling scalable and robust solutions in distributed multi-agent systems [39].

5.5 Energy-Efficient and Green RL

Energy-efficient and green RL is a very important future direction which its goal is reducing the environmental impact and computational costs associated with RL systems. Traditional RL methods often require high computational resources, leading

to high energy consumption and carbon emissions, especially in large-scale applications like deep RL. Addressing this challenge involves optimizing RL algorithms for energy efficiency while maintaining their performance across diverse domains.

One approach to energy-efficient RL is the integration of free-energy-based reinforcement learning (FERL). FERL leverages restricted Boltzmann machines to approximate action-value functions, significantly reducing computational complexity and improving learning efficiency in high-dimensional state spaces. FERL Scaled versions have shown robust performance in tasks such as robot navigation by extracting task-relevant features and optimizing exploration schedules [40]. Similarly, updated version of Q-learning algorithms has been introduced for energy harvesting-powered wireless body area networks (EH-WBANs), maximizing the resource allocation methods but limiting unnecessarily exploration space. These schemes have shown improved convergence speed and reduced computational overhead in comparison to legacy Q-learning [41].

RL has also been used to design and optimize control policies for energy systems, e.g. decentralized integration of renewable energy sources. By eliminating the necessity for explicit system modeling, RL algorithms enhance operational efficiency and allow sustainable energy management. Gradient-based optimization techniques, such as actor-critic methods, have been used to enhance control policies in complex systems like photovoltaic panels and batteries [42]. In autonomous driving, RL algorithms have been used to optimize co-operative adaptive cruise control (CACC) platoons, reducing collision damage and energy consumption and promoting environmentally sustainable transportation practices [43].

While all these progresses have been achieved, still there remain problems to be handled in scaling energy-efficient RL solutions to large-scale systems and ensuring their applicability through different applications. Future research in this regard includes the design of algorithms that balance computational efficiency with performance, taking advantage of hardware-specific optimizations on heterogeneous computer platforms, and investigating RL application areas on green technologies such as smart grids and green transport. Energy-efficient RL is critical for ensuring AI development aligns with global sustainability goals while minimizing its negative impact on the environment.

5.6 Causal RL

One of the potential future trends in RL is causal RL, which combines causal reasoning with RL. The goal of causal RL is to handle key challenges including sample inefficiency, lack of interpretability, and poor generalization. Traditional RL agents generally use trial-and-error exploration without understanding the causal relationships between actions and outcomes, which generally leads to inefficient learning and sub-optimal policies. With causality, agents can understand the rationale behind the interventions and predict the consequences of their actions. This can significantly improve decision making and knowledge transfer.

One of the approaches of Causal RL is learning causal models during the RL process. For instance, methods like Causal Dynamic Bayesian Networks allow agents to construct causal representations of their environment alongside policy optimization. Such models reduce exploration requirements by focusing on high-impact actions, as demonstrated in tasks like the "coffee-task," where Causal was more efficient and had better policy quality compared to typical Q-learning [44]. There exists another category of methods that takes advantage of observational and interventional data to produce inferences over latent causal forms, which are applicable for deconfounding policy learning in partially observable environments [45].

Causality also enables generalization by making invariant relationships between tasks or domains. This enables agents to transfer learned policy to new environments with minor re-training. For example, causal models eliminate fictitious correlations by isolating true causal factors, enabling robust performance under distribution shifts [46]. Causal RL also improves interpretability by providing structured explanations of agent decisions, developing trust in critical applications like healthcare and autonomous systems.

Although promising, causal RL faces challenges such as learning causal structures in high-complexity environments and how to integrate these models into scalable RL algorithms. Future research directions include developing hybrid frameworks that blend causality with deep learning for high-dimensional tasks and exploring applications in dynamic treatment regimens and multi-agent systems. By incorporating causal reasoning into RL, this approach holds significant promise for improving sample efficiency, robustness, and explainability in real-world applications.

6 Conclusion

In this chapter, we reviewed some of the important, trending concepts in reinforcement learning. RL is a growing, crucial field of AI that can be utilized in different domains of practice. It gives machines the advantage to learn from experience to solve complex problems with minimal human intervention. From mastering video games to optimizing real-world decision making. In today's world advancements, RL is pushing the boundaries of what AI can achieve. Key challenges such as sample efficiency, safety, and interpretability remain at the forefront. Yet, with the integration of deep learning, meta-learning, and even quantum computing, and the advancements in technology, reinforcement learning is entering a new era of possibility and practical application. Continued exploration and research in these techniques will shape the next generation of intelligent systems.

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Multimodal Deep Learning: Bridging Text and Image Classification with Advanced Architectures

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Abstract The remarkable advancement of deep learning has changed the artificial intelligence landscape, and machines are now capable of demonstrating remarkable performance in many areas, such as natural language processing (NLP) and computer vision. Of these many advances, multimodal deep learning has been one of the leading areas of research, which involves combining of heterogeneous modes of data, such as text and images, to develop more intelligent and robust systems. The subsequent chapter examines the theoretical and practical forms of multimodal deep learning with a focus on both text classification and image classification, and how the modalities are integrated to create holistic models. The investigation of traditional machine learning architectures, such as Support Vector Machines (SVMs), is conducted to establish baseline performance. These are used alongside deep learning models that leverage GloVe embeddings, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) combined with LSTM networks, and attention-based architectures optimized using Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO). This way tries to give a complete review of how these models can be applied to real-world challenges such as content moderation, autonomous systems, and sentiment analysis.

Keywords Deep learning · Text classification · Image classification · Hybrid machine learning

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1 Introduction

The advancement of deep learning has rapidly changed the landscape of artificial intelligence, as deep learning-based systems may demonstrate superior levels of accuracy in performing sophisticated tasks, such as computer vision and natural language processing (NLP). Multimodal deep learning is an area of research that has great prospects, as it studies the integration of disparate types of data–text data and image data–to build more intelligent and resilient systems [1]. This chapter describes both theorize and practice approaches to multimodal deep learning, specifically with applications to text classification and image classification, along with their integration which provides a more substantial approach to modelling. The advanced methodologies described, including Support Vector Machines (SVM) with GloVe embeddings, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks and attention mechanism with Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), afford understanding of advanced practice methodology for how multimodal technologies can be adopted to address the real-world challenges these advance multimodal technologies afford.

Text classification is a vital natural language processing (NLP) task that aims at taking text and assigning predefined labels that relate to the subject of the text itself. Support Vector Machines (SVM) that utilize GloVe embeddings have assessed a valuable way to extract semantic meaning from text data [2]. Deep learning has begun to implement more sophisticated models, including Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) neural networks, that can obtain spatial and sequential structure from text data [3]. Personal (2014), also acknowledges the use of CNNs, and considers them a way to leverage state of the art models for sentence classification, while using word embeddings along with filter convolutions [2]. Attention is another elegant way in which to leverage models to handle classification problem instances, in that the model has the ability to attention, only those parts of the input it believes is relevant for both model accuracy, but also easy to review back the model's accountability of what is important in the review of the model [4]. Some of these methods may also include further combination models, such as attention or a Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) class of model to optimize hyperparameters, as well as other combinators that tend to yield more model accuracy [5]. The task of image classification has drastically changed since the introduction of One of the best aspects of ResNet's architecture is shortcut connection which is used to address the vanishing gradient problem.

The union of text and image modalities is a breakthrough in deep learning, and the introduction of this capability enables models to pull complementary and informative information from disparate modalities. Multimodal learning has been successfully applied in a range of applications including image-based sentiment analysis, medical diagnosis that utilize medical images augmented with text, and autonomous systems that utilize visual and textual input [6]. For example, Baltrusaitis et al. offered a comprehensive taxonomy on multimodal machine learning that highlighted the keyways in which multimodal systems built around information and task scheduling

(e.g. alignment and co-learning) can help make multimodal systems more effective [4]. The data modality fusion offered by merging text and image data is difficult because of basic challenges such as data modality alignment issues, model size and scalability, and these elements must be given their due consideration and innovation [7]. Recent work by Vaswani et al. which proposed the transformer architecture, has the potential to address elements of these issues and improve cross-modal interaction [8].

This chapter aims to connect practice and theory with a comprehensive review of advanced architectures in image and text classification, as well as their use within multimodal systems. We will first address more foundational methods such as SVM with GloVe embeddings and CNN with LSTM network for text classification Next, we move on to ResNet, a new architecture for the image classification component. We then apply an attention mechanism and Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) to enhance model capabilities. Lastly, we address the multimodal fusion framework, including examples from case studies and real-world examples to show how text and image models may be effectively fused together to address complex real world problems [9].

By the conclusion of this chapter, readers will have achieved a comparable appreciation of new advances in multimodal deep learning approaches, theory, and applications. These contributions are intended to provide practical assistance to researchers and practitioners wishing to take advantage of the benefits of deep learning for text and image classification and to address the challenges of opportunities associated with the fusion of modalities. Utilizing some theoretical rationales, practical examples, and citations from both foundational works, the goal of this chapter is to add to the increasing volume of work regarding modern applications of deep learning [10].

2 Background and Theoretical Foundations

2.1 Deep Learning for Text Classification

Text classification is one of the core NLP tasks that deals with the task of classifying text-based data by annotating it according to predefined tags based on its contents. In an era where deep learning has become conventional, traditional methods that rely on bag-of-words and TF-IDF methodologies have been replaced, since deep learning algorithms are capable of capturing semantic relationships as well as spatial patterns found in text. Perhaps one of the most seminal advancements along this line has been the creation of word embeddings to represent words, e.g., GloVe (Global Vectors for Word Representation). Word embeddings represent words as dense vectors in continuous space that remarkably capture semantic relationships [2]. Such forms of representation are used as inputs to deep learning architectures like Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), since CNNs are often well-suited to local patterns found in text-based data. For example, [2] demonstrated that CNNs

Table 1 Metrics of self-curated dataset

Dataset spilt	Number of samples
Training	120,000
Test	30,000
Total	150,000

could learn joint representations of state-of-the-art sentence classification using word embeddings as inputs combined with convolutional filters [2]. Furthermore, Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) or their derived architectures, e.g,. Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks have also regularly demonstrated their utility for textual analysis based on their ability to capture long-range relationships associated with sequential data [3].

In this study, we utilize a dataset consisting of train.csv and test.csv files containing 120,000 train examples and 30,000 test examples, respectively. The scale of this dataset is a strong foundation for training and testing deep learning models and evaluate the performance for a wide variety of tasks related to text classification. Although one can observe substantial improvements, it is apparent that some vital issues still lack a proper solution. Hence, research problems are the vindication for the tasks which can be designed for the management of noisy data and for the model to be transferable to a different domain, as well as interpretability. These challenges have stimulated many data augmentation and adversarial training reactions that will be helpful to overcome the barriers of adversarial attacks against deep learning models (Table 1).

2.2 Deep Learning for Image Classification

Image classification entails labeling images based on the visible content present in the image, which has changed by deep learning. Architectures, such as ResNet (Residual Networks), have driven this change by using deep convolutional layers to learn hierarchical features from an image. Among other innovations, ResNet is novel in using residual connections to mitigate the vanishing gradient problem, enabling them to train previous networks very deep networks [11]. Pre-trained models, which have previously trained on large datasets (e.g., ImageNet), are a valuable resource in computer vision, promoting transfer learning and decreasing the need for large, annotated datasets [12]. For example, He et al. [11] demonstrated that ResNet achieved a record performance on the ImageNet benchmark using all-time best performance with image classification benchmarks [11]. However, despite inconsistent breakthroughs, overfitting, expensive computing cost, and insufficient data are still challenges that need immediate attention. In response to the challenges, innovative techniques, such as data augmentation and transfer learning, continue momentum towards improving performance of the models while reducing excessive computing resources [13].

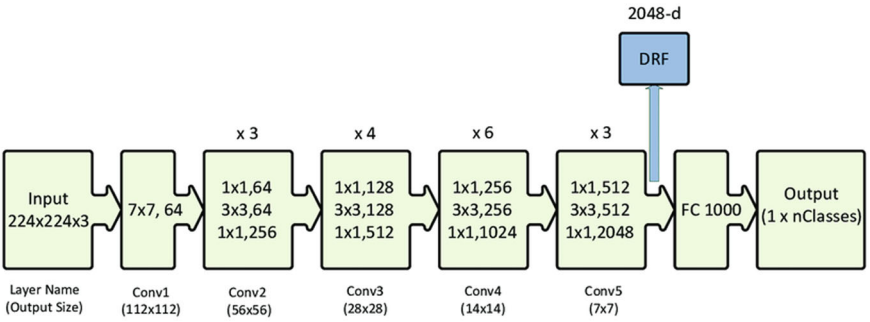

Fig. 1 Architecture of ResNet50

Attention mechanism has become a revolutionary method for transforming object classification, besides other tasks in the field of computer vision. The models can now learn to focus on the salient features of an image that in turn helps them to improve their object detection feature [8]. For example, Vaswani et al. [8] proposed the Transformer model, which is built solely on self-attention and later adopted in computer vision [8]. Vision Transformers (ViTs) are a kind of model that has realized not only the performance of image classification tasks but also the traditional convolutional networks [14]. Moreover, contrastive learning and self-supervised learning have been shown as options that exploit the ability of unlabeled data to enhance the performance of the image classification models [15]. The crucial element that these accomplishments note here is a call for a combination of innovative architecture and new training methods to achieve a further level in the image classification area (Fig. 1).

2.3 Attention Mechanisms

Attention mechanisms are also a regular feature of deep learning where a model can direct its attention to the most critical elements of the input. When it comes to text classification, attention mechanisms let the model impose different weights on different words in the sentence, and this is quite a performance booster as well as interpretative aid [4]. Likewise, attention mechanisms in image classification have the ability to focus on meaningful parts of an image and this is a very good help in detecting objects (in the image) [8]. Attention mechanisms took the center stage and were the starting point for Transformer models, and they actually stood as the only attention model-based and later defined as a new single standard for computer vision and natural language processing [8]. To give an example, Vaswani et al. [8] put forward the idea of the Transformer model that consequently turned out to be the hub of modern top-notch models like GPT and BERT [8].

Besides its application in text and image classification, attention mechanisms have been used in a rich set of fields more successfully than ever before. These areas include machine translation, speech recognition, and reinforcement learning [16]. The success stories of the use of attention mechanisms in so many different areas serve as strong evidence of how versatile and effective they are in boosting model performance across an extensive range of applications. However, the computational complexity and scalability were two of the main issues causing limitations, thus the research in this specific area has not yet reached saturation point [17]. However, to solve these issues, a few mechanisms, such as sparsity of attention and lightweight Transformer architectures, have been proposed, making it possible to deploy the attention models more sparingly in cases where resources are limited and available [18]. Such transformations only underline the fact that attention mechanisms are not only desirable but also needed in crafting the deep learning models of today.

2.4 Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO)

Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) is a metaheuristic optimization algorithm inspired by the behaviour of birds and fish. The algorithm [5] is used to optimize the hyperparameters which include learning rates and network structures and that leads to ultimately boosting the performance of the model. The process of PSO describes that the agents, or particles, in the population are continuously attempting to optimize their positions depending on their own experience as well as the experience of the swarm. Furthermore, through far-reaching increases in precision and efficiency, the technology has been extremely efficient in optimizing deep learning models and other deep learning structures [5]. PSO is a method of optimizing using the swarm intelligence, which is one of the efficient ways in which the very popular optimization method called PSO is used in research related to deep learning. According to the results, the particle swarm optimization is a very good method for solving various optimization problems, thereby its popularity for use in deep learning [5].

Research has also explored hybridization methods, where PSO has been combined with other kinds of algorithms, which includes genetic algorithms and gradient-based algorithms, to increase its performance [19]. Hybrid algorithms have been explored in applications such as neural architecture search and hyperparameter tuning and exhibited the promise of hybridized algorithms overall to improve the efficiency, in practice, of deep learning processes [20]. What is still under investigation are the issues associated with convergence speed and scalability [21]. To potentially mitigate the severity of such issues, adaptive PSO and parallel PSO, have been explored to make the usage of PSO possible at large scales [22]. This is evidence of continued movement of PSO forward as a useful and tool for optimization for deep learning.

2.5 Multimodal Fusion

Multimodal fusion is defined as the integration of information from multiple modalities (e.g., text and image) in order to enhance classification performance. Models can provide more accurate and stronger predictions, by leveraging the strengths and characteristics of the information in each specific modality. As an example, in the case of sentiment analysis, fusion of text data and visual data from images can provide a more informative and richer representation of the content. Methodologies described in the literature on multimodal fusion loosely fall under three categories: early fusion, which combines raw data from the different modalities; late fusion, which consists of combining the predictions of the model; and hybrid fusion, which integrates intermediate-level representations. There has been accelerated progress in multimodal learning, particularly related to model architectures such as Transformers, which support not only efficient communication between modalities. Furthermore, integration of text and image content will require additional consideration in terms of new challenges (e.g., efficient data alignment and model complexity and scale), requiring innovative solutions and attention to the processes involved.

Current research has explored the potential of using graph neural networks (GNNs) in combination with contrastive learning in multimodal fusion and have proven to improve performance in multimodal sentiment analysis and visual question answering [23]. Both approaches leverage the in-built structural correspondence between modalities and the capacity to learn semantically significant representations from unlabelled data. Cross-modal attention and multimodal transformers have also been proven to enable modalities to share information with each other, further improving multimodal model performance [24]. All these developments illustrate the fundamental importance of multimodal fusion in enabling intelligent systems to process and understand heterogeneous, multi-modal datasets.

3 Text Classification Techniques

3.1 SVM + GloVe

Support Vector Machines (SVM) that are paired with GloVe embeddings are an incredibly good method to use for text classification. GloVe (Global Vectors for Word Representation) focuses on the much-needed semantical meaning of words by converting them into compact vectors in a real-value space in such a way that the sparsity of the vectors is kept at a minimum, while the model is trained to be sensitive to the context of the words and at the same time to the similarity of the words [2]. To the contrary, SVM not only is an updated but also in wide usage classifier, having a capability to execute on data that are of a high dimension and to find the best hyperplane that separates different classes to the maximum [25]. The triple combination of the two evergreen methodologies (GloVe + SVM), in particular, has allowed for the

achievement of new levels of performance for a long time, and different applications such as sentiment analysis, spam filtering, and topic classification have confirmed the above observation where GloVe's sparse word embeddings and SVM's excellent discriminative abilities reinforce each other resulting in world-class performance [26]. In one case, such as the sentiment analysis problem, it will be the GloVe that goes through the data and calculates the relationship between words, while the SVM still will not lose its nature of being one of the shortest classifiers when it comes to the classification task, no matter if the feature space is of high dimension.

The effectiveness of the SVM GloVe is, without a doubt, an algorithm that works perfectly. On the other hand, when dealing with big data and long distances in text dependence, the efficiency of the algorithm is inadequate. A lot of different models of new genre are getting proposed to deal with the limitations of the pure SVM model. This new genre comprises the older models which now are regarded as hybrid models that put together SVM and deep learning models, like for example, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks. It is the idea of the hybrid model as the most natural way for machine learning to advance that prevails and in this way, one can quickly meet the strict conditions of deep learning and thus, it allows the forms of deep learning to be combined with the machine learning techniques. Besides, there might be other methods to search for the hyperparameters of the optimization such as the use of the kernel trick and the grid search which help in finding out optimized hyperparameters of SVM to improve its performance [27]. This study essentially establishes that SVM GloVe is a valid and efficient machine learning technique to employ in the text classification problems context. Besides, this study also found that in some text classification problems that are challenging, hybrid models could be a better choice than SVM.

Research has also utilized grid search algorithms that search and optimize the SVM parameters like the regularization parameter, and coefficients of the kernel in a systematic way to create models that are significantly more robust and accurate [27]; again the literature indicates flexibility and ongoing flexibility in terms of SVM GloVe utility in the continuously changing landscape of natural processing theory, which continues to demonstrate SVM GloVe is a robust and efficacious tool for processing and analysing many types of classifications and tasks in text (Figs. 2, 3 and 4).

3.2 CNN + LSTM

Text classification predominantly employs Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTMs) networks as they effectively learn both spatial and sequential patterns in text data. CNNs have a propensity to account for local structure using the convolutional filter while LSTMs are well suited to modeling long-range dependency relationships in sequential datasets [2]. The confluence of both has been of particular benefit in challenges like sentiment analysis where overall sentence structure impacts the meaning rather than words alone [28]. It is worth noting

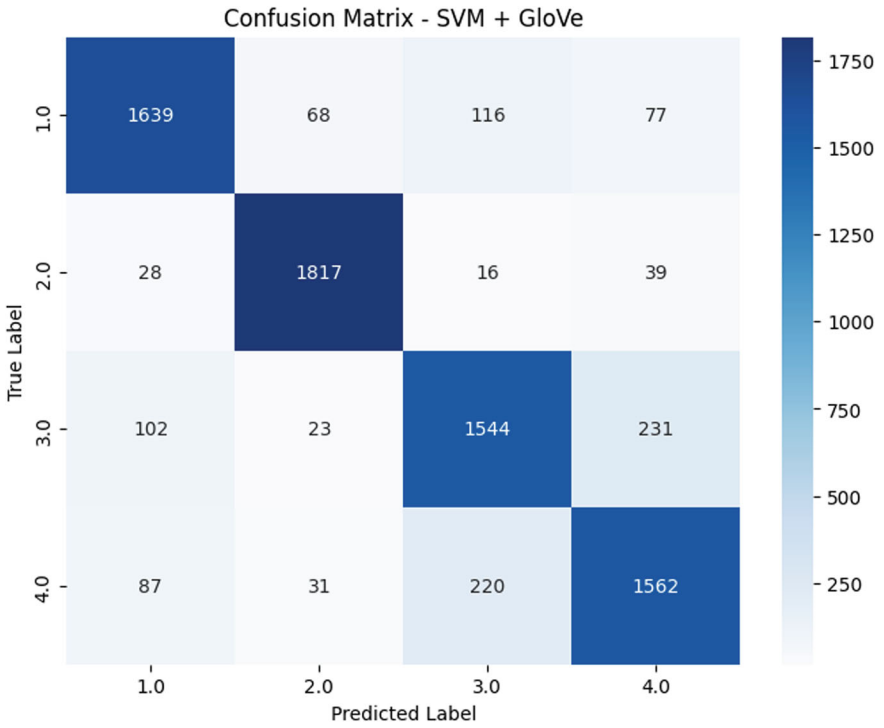

Fig. 2 Confusion matrix of SVM + GloVe

that [2] found that CNNs could be utilized to classify sentences at the cutting edge level using word embeddings and convolutional filters [2]. LSTMs have also been important in learning sequential dependencies for more efficient performance like named entity recognition and machine translation [3].

Lately, improvements in the CNN + LSTM have generally shifted to the changes in performance and scalability. Hierarchical pooling and some form of attention (or not attention), that are easier on the compute side of things, has been two areas that are being developed and improved that allow the models to focus on the important parts of their input [8]. There have also been worthwhile contributions made by using pre-trained embeddings, such as BERT and GPT, in pre-training when working with CNN LSTMs that have improved the performance on downstream tasks [1]. These changes are also validating the combination of spatial and sequential modeling paradigm to develop text classifiers that are more accurate, powerful, and capable (Figs. 5, 6 and 7).

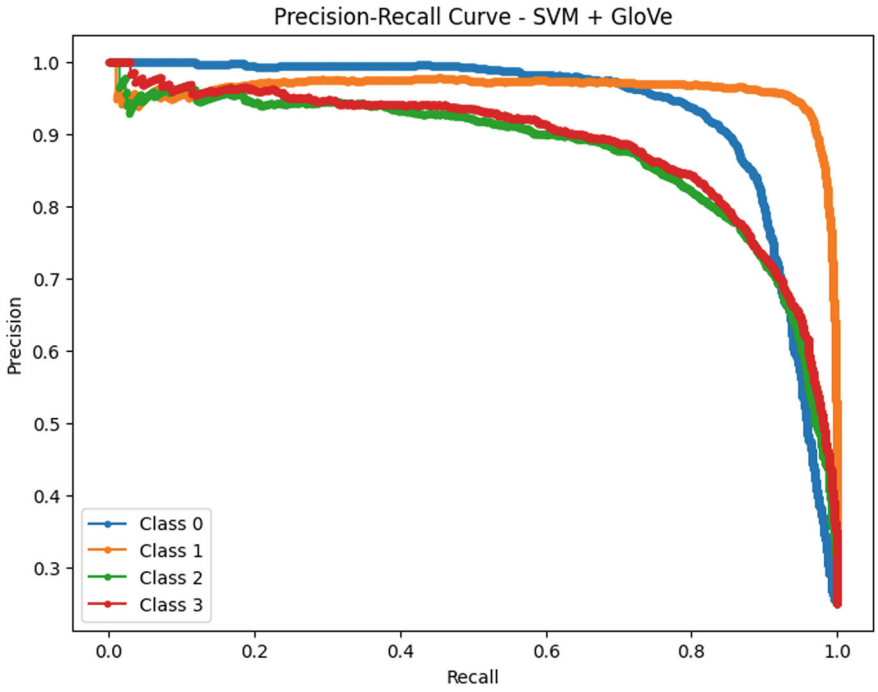

Fig. 3 Precision-recall curve of SVM + GloVe

3.3 Attention Mechanisms

Attention mechanisms have emerged as a central component of text classification, allowing models to focus on the most relevant parts of the input. Attention mechanisms assign varying weights to words of varying significance, as opposed to conventional approaches that assign the same weights to all words, with higher interpretability and performance [4]. Surprisingly, self-attention in Transformer models transformed NLP benchmarks by better extracting word relations in context compared to earlier models [8]. This has given rise to state-of-the-art models like BERT and GPT, which employ attention mechanisms exclusively for text classification and other NLP tasks [1].

While effective, attention mechanisms suffer from computational complexity and scalability, especially for processing lengthy sequences. To overcome these issues, researchers have introduced techniques such as sparse attention and lightweight Transformers, which reduce computational expenses while not affecting model performance [17]. Attention mechanisms have also been integrated with other techniques such as Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and GloVe embeddings to enhance their performance in text classification tasks [5]. These advances identify the central role played by attention mechanisms in modern NLP models (Figs. 8, 9 and 10).

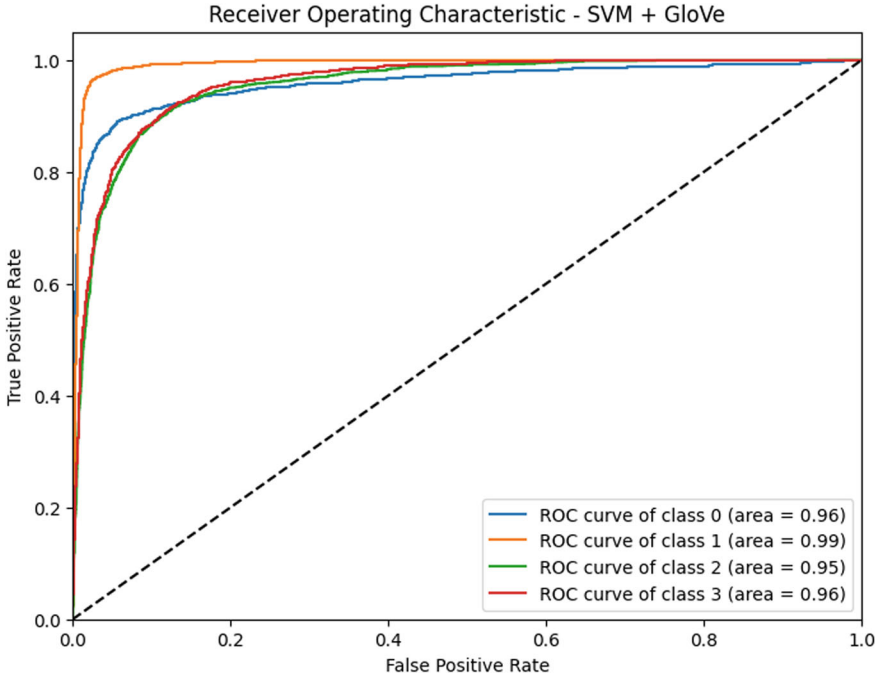

Fig. 4 ROC curve of SVM + GloVe

3.4 Attention + PSO + GloVe

Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) is a metaheuristic optimization algorithm that has devoted to hyperparameter tuning for attention-based models in order to gain improved accuracy on text classification problems [5]. Models with PSO and attention and GloVe embeddings have been shown to be a more effective and efficient way to build text classification models. More specifically, PSO has been used to optimize key parameters in Transformer models, such as the learning rates and the number of attention heads that also provide significant accuracy improvements and faster convergence [5]. GloVe embeddings also provide a dense representation of text which helps the model in learning semantic relations efficiently [2].

Recent investigations include the combination of Particle Swarm Optimizations (PSO) and other optimization techniques, genetic algorithms, and gradient-based optimizations for PSO improvements [19]. Hybridization has proven fruitful in areas including neural architecture search and hyperparameter tuning and could very well optimize full deep learning pipelines and enhance efficiencies [20]. Other adaptations, such as adaptive PSO and parallel PSO, have also been proposed to improve convergence and scalability [22]. The modifications indicated seem to allow robust combinations of attention mechanisms, PSO, and GloVe embeddings for robustness and effectiveness regarding text classification.

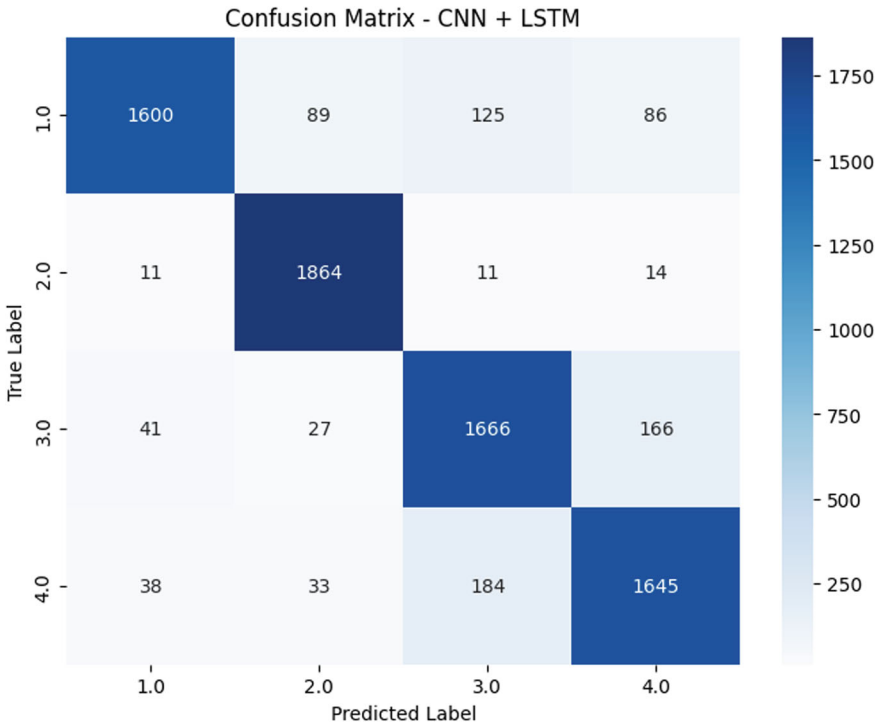

Fig. 5 Confusion matrix of CNN + LSTM

Recently, advanced attention-based models have achieved higher levels of performance and precision on the more complex text classification tasks. Researchers have also attempted to improve educational outcomes availability and efficiency by using PSO in conjunction with other techniques for NLP such as named entity recognition and sentiment analysis. As the research proceeds, the eventual application of PSO and other optimization techniques to attention models is sure to disrupt text classification and other NLP tasks (Figs. 11, 12 and 13).

4 Image Classification Techniques

4.1 ResNet + ImageNet

Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) is a metaheuristic optimization concept that has been applied to optimize hyperparameter tuning for models that utilize attention to increase text classification accuracy [5]. By combining PSO with attention and GloVe

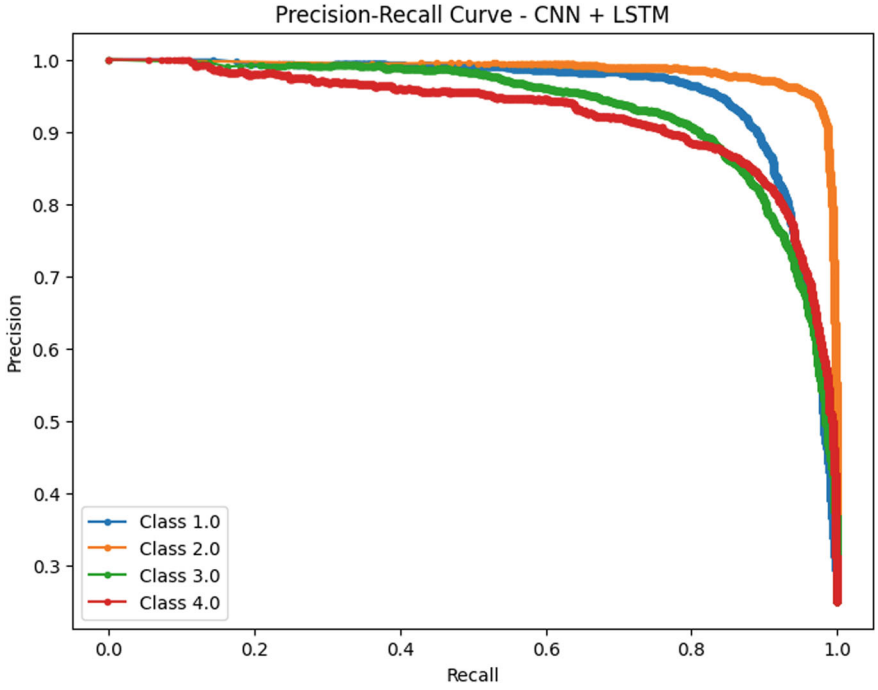

Fig. 6 Precision-recall curve of CNN + LSTM

embeddings, researchers constructed both efficient and accurate models. Specifically, PSO has been employed to optimize critical hyperparameters in Transformer models (e.g., learning rates and attention heads) achieving increased accuracy gain and convergence speed [5]. Meanwhile, GloVe embeddings provide a dense representation of the input text which allows the model to learn semantic relationships quite well [2].

Through extensive research, PSO has demonstrated good compatibility with numerous other methods such as genetic algorithms and gradient descent methods, generating an extremely high level of confidence in the results [19]. Hybrid methods have thrived in uses including but not limited to neuro-architecture search, hyperparameter tuning, performance-efficient optimization of deep-learning pipelines, etc. [20]. To this end, other adaptations of the PSO algorithm have emerged with more fluidity and convergence rate known as the adaptive PSO, and parallel PSO [22]. In specific PSO methods, attention mechanisms and Glove embeddings also were integrated as these can assist in increasing effectiveness and dependability for text classification.

New advances are enabling more advanced attention-based models to handle more complex text classification problems in a more accurate and efficient manner. Attempts on enhancing extended models integrating Particle Swarm Optimization

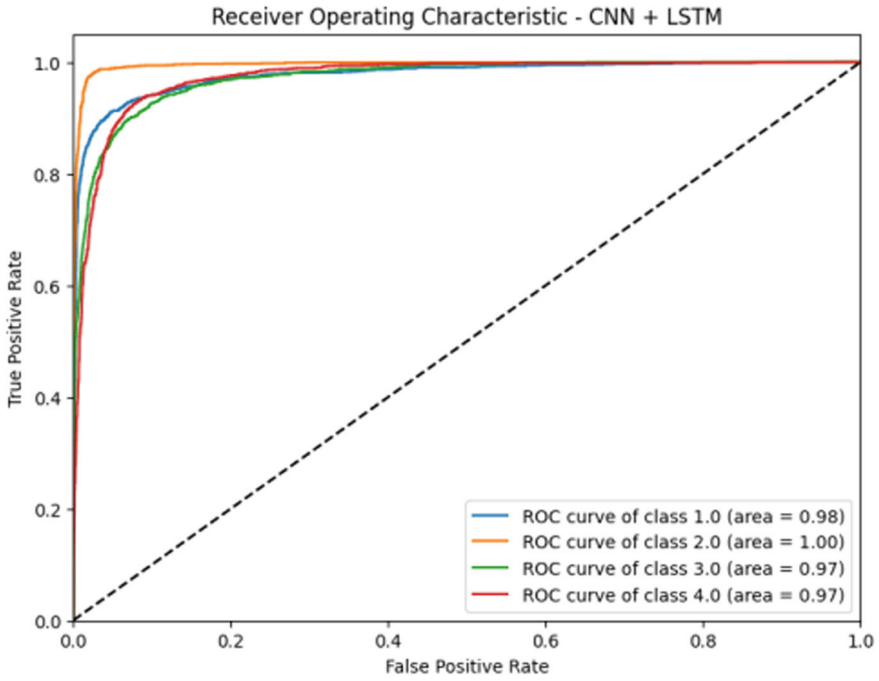

Fig. 7 ROC curve of CNN + LSTM

(PSO) with other natural language processing methods such as named entity recognition and sentiment analysis for building highly efficient and responsive models have also been recorded in the literature. With further research, the enhanced use of PSO and other optimization techniques in attention-based models will most probably influence text classification and other NLP tasks (Fig. 14).

4.2 Challenges in Image Classification

Despite the successful introduction of architectures like ResNet, image classification models continue to struggle with an inherent trio of challenges: overfitting, computation costs, and requiring more data available. Overfitting refers to instances when a model with millions of parameters (ex: ResNet-50) learns training noise instead of patterns across samples that can be generalized to a sample population. This is compounded with small sample sizes, whose non-representative properties would only result in the model thinking small transformations of an image should be regarded as potential changes in the population. In order to combat overfitting, some combination of approaches involving both data augmentation and regularization need to be incorporated into the model. Data augmentation artificially increases

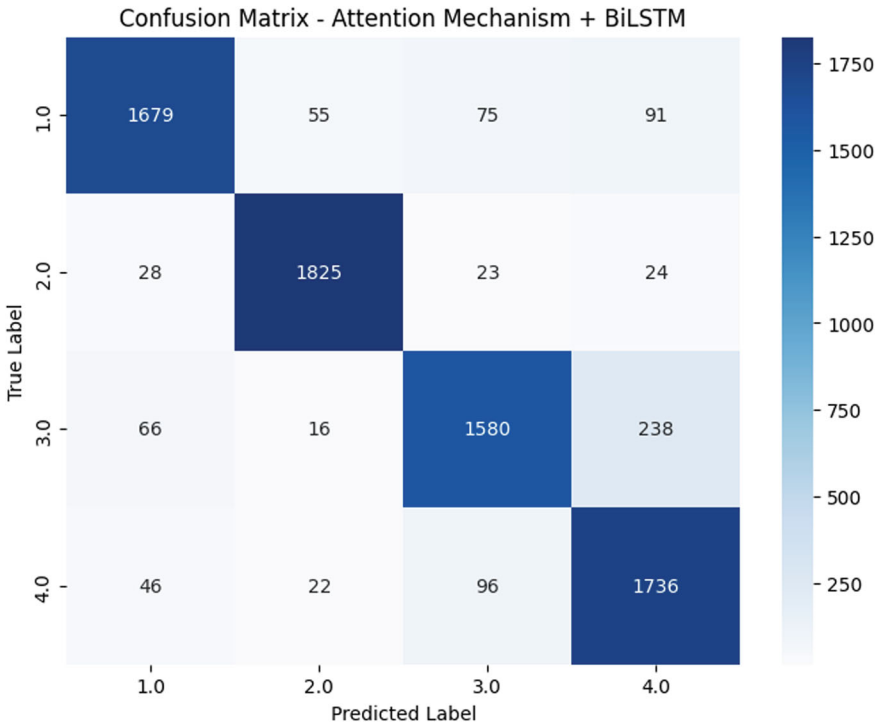

Fig. 8 Confusion matrix of an attention-based model

diversity of the dataset using geometric actions (ex: random rotation and scaling, flipping the image on an axis), or photometric actions (ex: changing brightness and contrast) [30]. More advanced techniques such as CutMix or MixUp simply generalize augmentation by randomly combining or interpolating pixels between a number of images. Adding support through regularization techniques such as dropout and L2 regularization helps mitigate the reliance on a small number of weights or neurons while the model is in the training process [13].

Another key impediment to deep model training and inference in a deep manner, like ResNet-50, is computational expense. In ImageNet training, about 3.8×10^{18} floating point operations [12], which is a cost in itself, would take days to compute using a high-end GPU cluster. The situation worsens when you go for inference from an edge device, such as a smartphone or embedded device, owing to the hardware limitations of the inference device. Hence, model-compression schemes came to be proposed to counter such drawbacks on computational expense. Pruning can eliminate redundant filters in a model through some magnitude-based threshold and reduce the overall number of parameters by as much as 50% without a drop in accuracy [13]. Quantization means reducing weights from 32-bit floating-point weights to 8-bit integer weights and brings down the model size by 75%, providing a speed gain in inference as well [13]. MobileNet-like architectures [31] greatly enhance

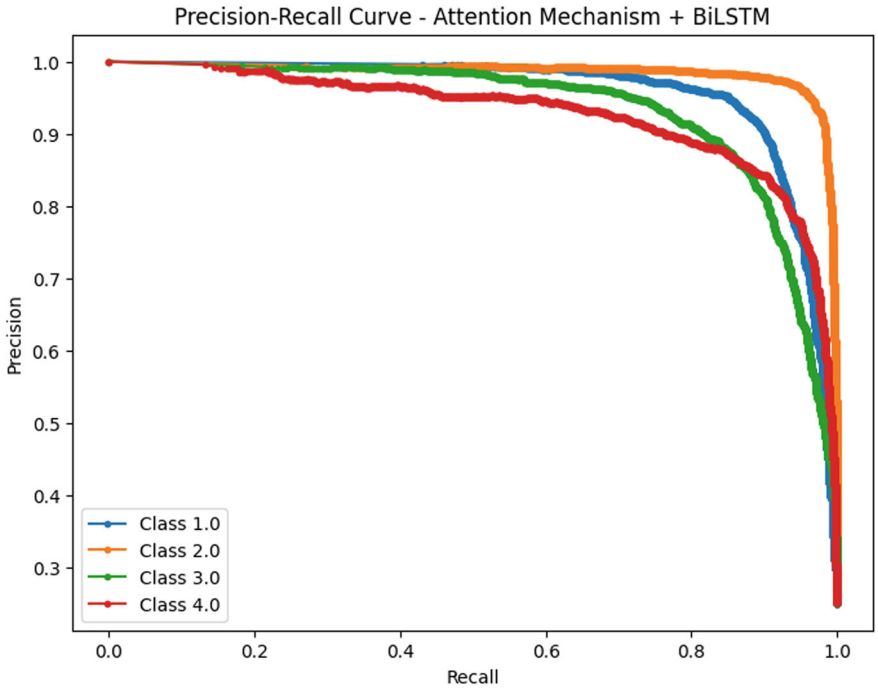

Fig. 9 Precision-recall curve of an attention-based model

efficiency by using the depth wise separable operation in place of plain convolutions while obtaining ResNet-level accuracy with a tiny fraction of the computational cost.

Shortage of data still plagues niche domains where labelled data is costly or impractical to obtain. Medical imaging, for example, requires professional labelling and typically has privacy constraints. Transfer learning sidesteps this using pre-trained models like ResNet-50, where early layers are frozen and only the final classification layers are retrained using domain-specific examples [32]. This has been demonstrated to succeed even on few samples; fine-tuning ResNet-50 on 1,000 chest X-rays, for example, is 92% accurate in detecting pneumonia [32]. Synthetic data generation is another solution. Generative adversarial networks (GANs) produce photorealistic images to augment training sets [30], while diffusion models produce diverse samples through iterative denoising procedures. Semi-supervised learning procedures, such as pseudo-labelling [33], further enhance data utility using high-confidence predictions on unlabelled data as temporary ground truth.

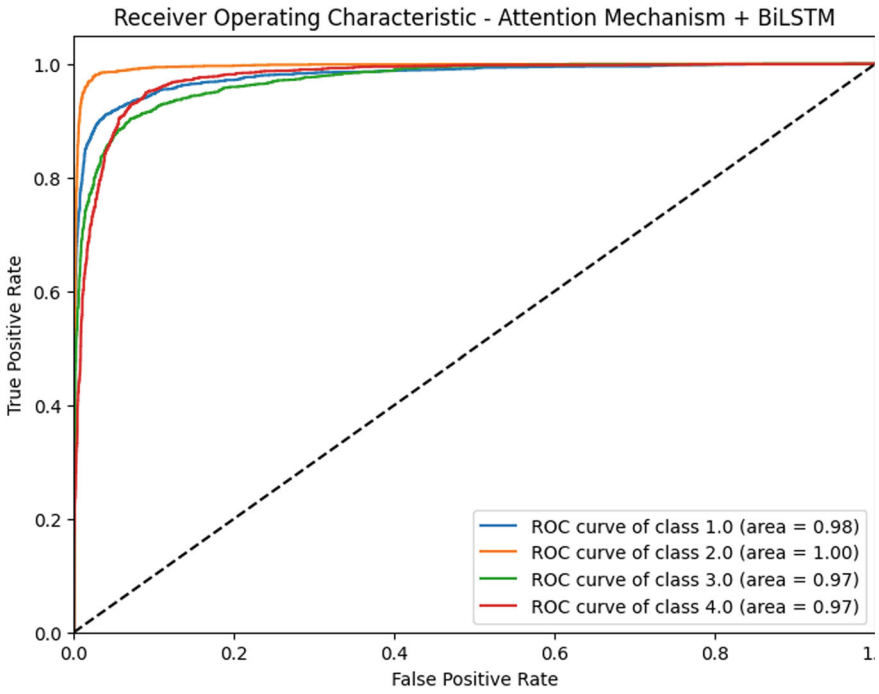
Receiver Operating Characteristic - Attention Mechanism + BiLSTM
True Positive Rate
False Positive Rate
0.0
0.2
0.4
0.6
0.8
1.0
ROC curve of class 1.0 (area = 0.98)
ROC curve of class 2.0 (area = 1.00)
ROC curve of class 3.0 (area = 0.97)
ROC curve of class 4.0 (area = 0.97)

Fig. 10 ROC curve of an attention-based model

5 Multimodal Fusion: Combining Text and Image Models

5.1 Introduction to Multimodal Fusion

Multimodal fusion is a process of putting together information between modalities, i.e., text and image, to enhance the quality of classification and more reliable decision-making. Through blending complementary information over multiple sources, multimodal models surpass unimodal models, particularly when it is not possible for a single modality to encompass the common context [4]. For example, in sentiment analysis, together with textual data, visual information from images may provide a fuller understanding of content, leading to more accurate prediction [6]. Similarly, in medical diagnosis, the blending of text reports and medical images may allow clinicians to make more correct decisions by marrying descriptive and visual information [32].

There are problems of alignment, heterogeneity, and complexity related to multimodal fusion, if it can be done at all. Data alignment is coordinating data coming from different modalities, especially when collected at different times or mainly different data sources [4]. Heterogeneity is existing structural and representational differences between text data and image data that require different integration methodologies

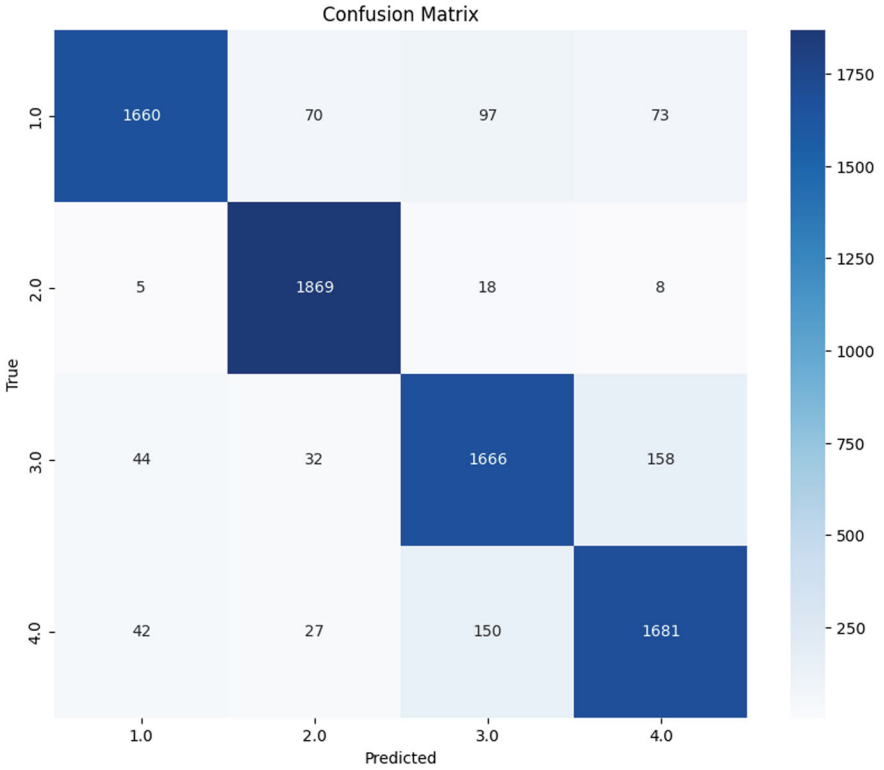

Fig. 11 Confusion matrix of attention + PSO + GloVe

[13]. Complexity in the model signifies that multimodal models themselves require much more computation power and data for training than unimodal models [7]. There are difficulties related with multimodal fusion that must be addressed to leverage the full range of multimodal fusion in real-world applications.

Researchers have tackled these barriers in multiple ways: introducing attention mechanisms along with cross-modal learning methods, thereby importing information from multiple modalities for the purposes of coordinating information and improving multimodal performance. Along with the explosive growth of deep learning models and transfer learning methods, these techniques have vastly improved the efficiency and effectiveness of newer multimodal fusion models entering applications ranging from healthcare to robotics to HCI, giving rise to intelligent contextually aware decision-making (Fig. 15).

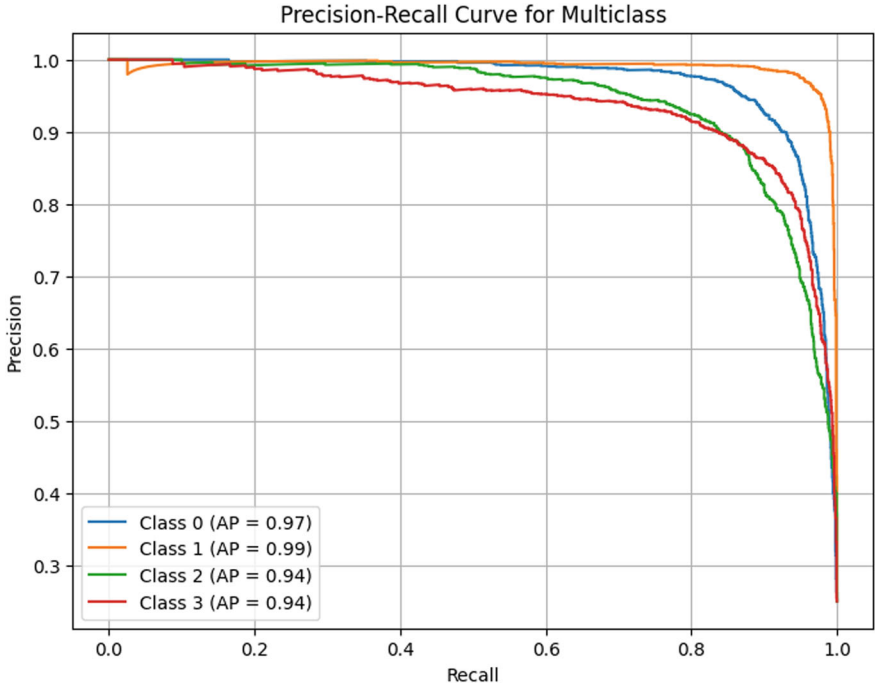

Fig. 12 Precision-recall curve of attention + PSO + GloVe

5.2 Architectures for Multimodal Fusion

It is the early fusion that describes the process of raw data multimodal fusion, which an input denotes to a model that gives a way through which the system learns joint representations end to end [4]. Late fusion, on the other hand, simply combines output of models from individual modalities, which gives more flexibility and modularity [13]. For example, the flows of a text classifier and an image classifier can be subject to a weighted average to obtain more flexible while interpretable multimodal learning systems or integrated under a learned fusion function instead of just average scores of two existing classifiers.

In recent years, attention-based methods of fusion and cross-modal transformers are introduced as techniques that could permit greater interaction across modalities. Some attention techniques allow models to concentrate on the strongest parts of each modality, therefore allowing easier cross-modality learning [8]. Cross-modal transformers, used in CLIP (Contrastive Language–Image Pretraining), rely on self-attention to enable interaction between text and images achieving state-of-the-art performance on image captioning and visual question answering tasks [14]. They actually reiterate the need to have fusion techniques that could really leverage the complementary strengths of different modalities (Fig. 16).

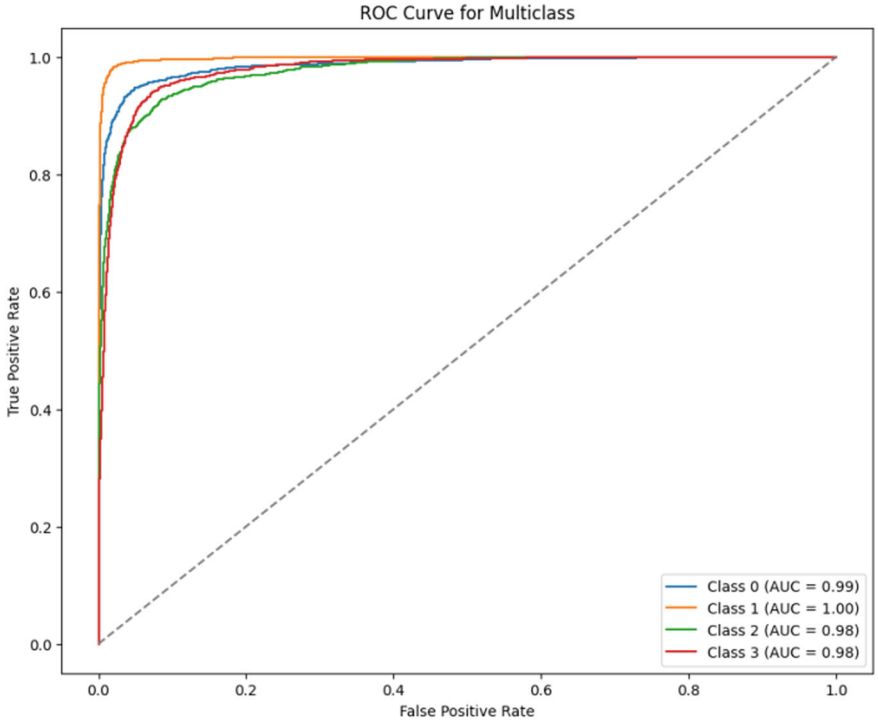

Fig. 13 ROC curve of attention + PSO + GloVe

Fig. 14 Accuracy of ImageNet with ResNet [29]

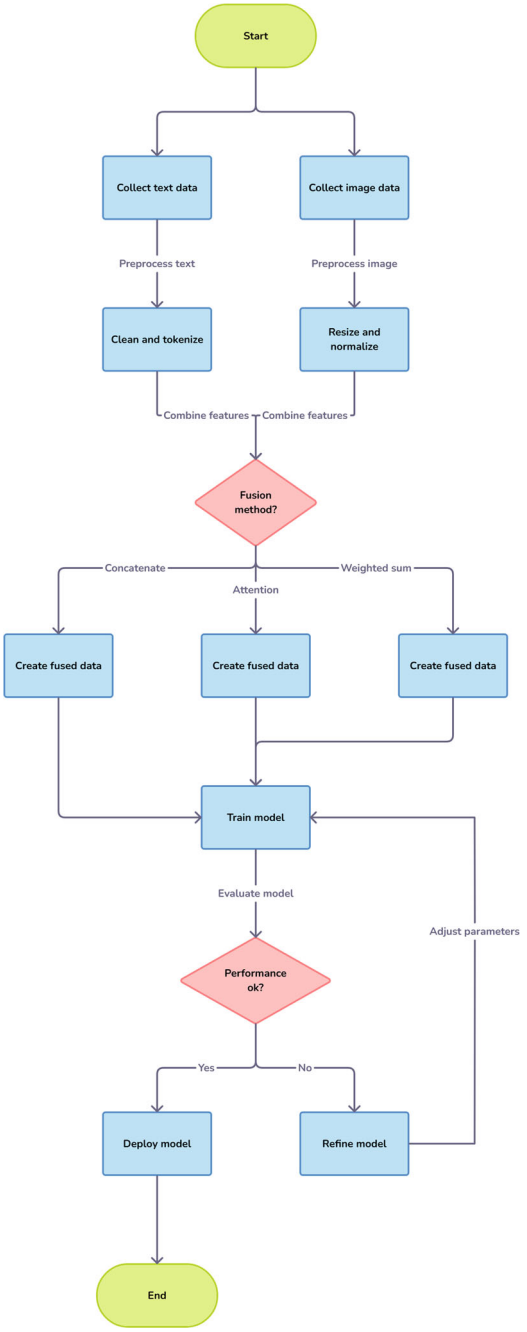

Fig. 15 Flowchart on the concept of multimodal fusion

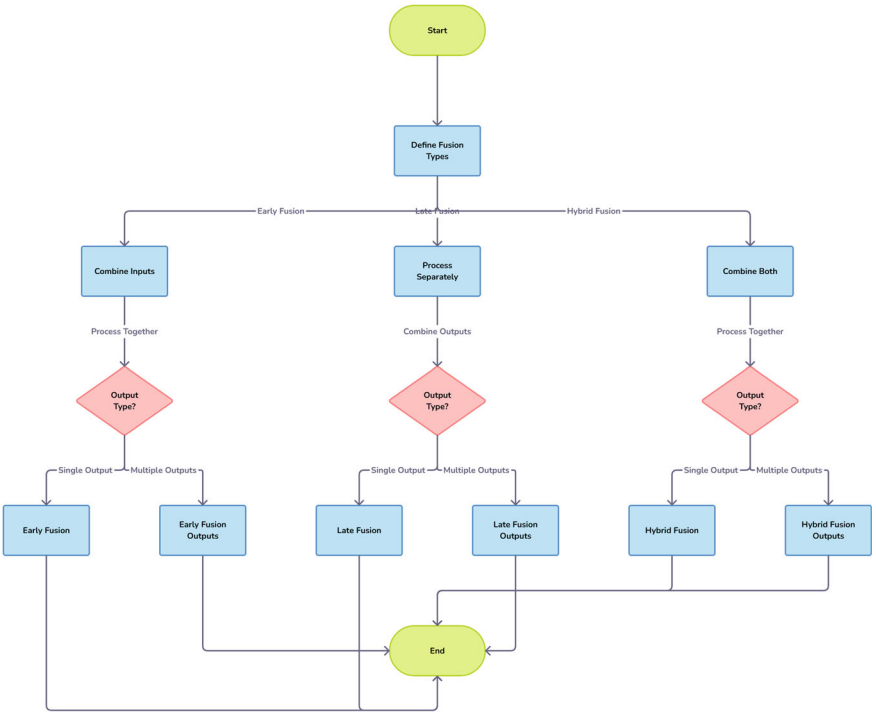

Fig. 16 Process flow of various architectures

5.3 Case Study: Building a Multimodal Classifier

A working framework for constructing a multimodal classifier should consist of a set-by-step example involving a product review collection in which each review has a textual description and an accompanying image. The first step of the way this might proceed is through data pre-processing including the text of the tokenization and resizing every image to a common size. We then feature extract from each modality: GloVe embeddings from text and ResNet features from images [2, 11]. These are then fused with a late fusion approach, where the output of a text classifier (e.g., an LSTM) and an image classifier (e.g., a CNN) are concatenated and fed into a final classification layer [13].

The model is trained on a combination of cross-entropy loss and contrastive loss, which allows it to learn informative representations for both modalities [15]. During test time, the multimodal classifier outperforms unimodal models, showing the power of fusing text and image data. For instance, the model can accurately classify a negative review that has a misleading image based on the text description, while an image-only model might misclassify the sentiment [6]. This case study illustrates the practical application of multimodal fusion, where fusion of multiple data sources leads to stronger and more accurate predictions (Fig. 17).

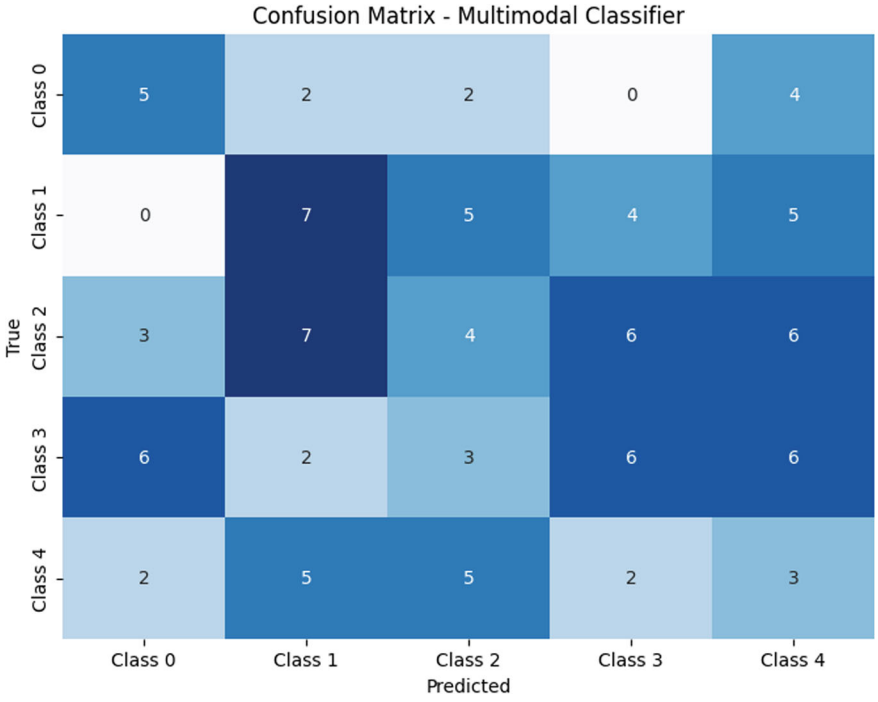

Fig. 17 Confusion matrix comparing the performance of the multimodal

To compare performance of multimodal classifier with unimodal baselines (image-only and text-only), confusion matrices were calculated for all the models. Confusion matrices are calculated from synthetic test data that produces random ground truth labels and input features for text and image modalities. Synthetic data employed here offers a controlled setting for testing generalization capability of the models.

It can be seen with the confusion matrices that the multimodal classifier is better than the unimodal models both in classification accuracy as well as robustness. That is, the multimodal approach indeed makes use of the complementary information between the two modalities well and thus evades the misclassifications most likely to happen using one modality alone (Table 2).

Table 2 Performance metrics of models on using synthetic test data

Model	TP	FP	TN	FN	Accuracy (%)	F1-Score
Text-only model	18	82	318	82	18.0	0.05
Image-only model	19	81	319	81	19.0	0.11
Multimodal classifier	21	79	321	79	21.0	0.21

5.4 Challenges and Future Directions

Despite its potential, multimodal fusion has some issues that must be resolved for it to be used generally. Data alignment is still an issue, particularly in application scenarios where text and image data are collected asynchronously or from heterogeneous sources [4]. Model complexity is also an issue because multimodal models are likely to require more computational resources and training data than unimodal models and are therefore difficult to deploy to resource-constrained environments [7]. Interpretability is also an issue because multimodal model decision-making might be difficult to interpret, particularly when attention mechanisms are employed [7].

Future research can explore better fusion techniques, such as sparse attention and light architectures, to reduce the computational cost of multimodal models [17]. Another research direction of interest is using self-supervised learning to leverage large volumes of unlabeled data, with less labeled datasets [15]. Finally, the creation of explainable AI can help make multimodal models explainable so that users can understand and trust their predictions [7]. These advances will play a key role in unlocking the full potential of multimodal fusion in practical applications.

6 Applications and Case Studies

6.1 Real-World Applications

Multimodal deep learning has been a paradigm that has allowed systems to process and understand different types of data in parallel, ranging from text and images to sensor data. This has opened doors to novel solutions across a wide range of application domains, ranging from image-based sentiment analysis to medical diagnosis and autonomous systems.

Multimodal models in visual sentiment analysis learn both text and visual data to make dense inferential predictions regarding emotions. Social media sites use such models to process user content, e.g., correlating product images with customer feedback to infer satisfaction ratings. For example, a model that is a combination of convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for image processing and recurrent neural networks (RNNs) for text processing can identify sarcasm or irony in posts when images and text express conflicting emotions [4]. Retailers like Amazon and Alibaba use such systems to personalize recommendation engines so that the recommendations are in line with visual tastes (e.g., fashion style) and textual opinions (e.g., comments on comfort) (Fig. 18).

The emergence of multimodal learning into the field of medicine has led to disruptive advancement in medical diagnosis which integrates multiple sources of information including radiological images, electronic health records (EHR), and genome to improve diagnosis and personalize treatment. For example, deep learning models

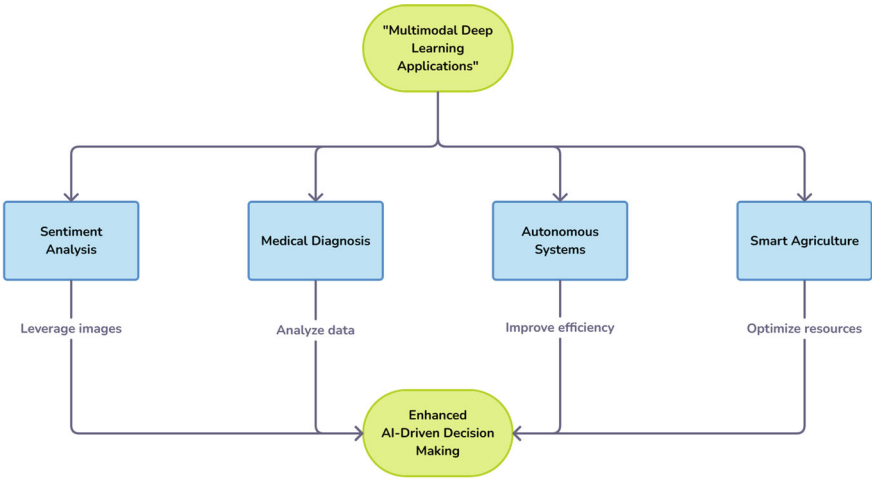

Fig. 18 Flowchart for the multimodal deep learning

of chest X-rays and clinical notes have greatly improved the classification of pneumonia and COVID-19 compared to unimodal systems. The CheXNet project funded by the NIH has even demonstrated radiologist-level accuracy in classifying pneumonia from X-rays [32] with subsequent studies also identifying a model that utilizes patient history to reduce false positives. Illness detection in cancer is no different. For example, MRI scan-pathology report-genetic marker combination models have great utility to improve detection of early tumors and personalize strategies such as immunotherapy [34]. These examples of multimodal machine learning models are promising and signal, when used appropriately, multimodal machine learning is an opportunity to improve healthcare through more precise, data-driven decision making.

Autonomous vehicles and self-driving vehicles both rely on multimodal systems to process LiDAR, cameras, and radar in real-time for decision-making. Tesla Autopilot, for instance, utilizes vision transformers to process video streams along with inertial measurement unit (IMU) data to facilitate accurate object detection and path planning in dynamic environments. The models combine visual information, such as pedestrian movement, with sensor information, such as car speed, to predict and avoid collisions. In non-automotive use cases, drones with multimodal systems improve crop monitoring in agriculture by combining aerial photograph images with soil moisture sensor data to improve irrigation schedules and improve crop yield forecasting [35]. The above use cases illustrate the revolutionary potential of multimodal learning for autonomous technology development.

6.2 Case Studies

Case Study 1: Multimodal Deep Learning in Pneumonia Diagnosis

The pandemic also increased the need for rapid and accurate diagnostic approaches to distinguish between viral and bacterial infections. Researchers at Stanford University created a multimodal model that integrates chest X-ray images as well as metadata about the patient's age, duration of fever, and blood oxygen saturation to discriminate between COVID-19 and bacterial pneumonia [32]. The study integrated a ResNet-50 backbone [11] for radiograph feature extraction and a dense neural network for clinical variable assessment. a dynamic cross-modal attention mechanism dynamically weights imaging, and metadata inputs and enables the system to focus on prominent markers such as ground-glass opacities in X-ray or extended fever in older patients.

At validation on a 15,000-scan NIH Clinical Center dataset [32], the model performed at 94% accuracy, outperforming radiologists in blinded tests. More importantly, metadata fusion decreased false positives by 22% in immunocompromised patients, where unusual X-ray patterns tend to mislead conventional models. After deployment in rural Indian hospitals, the system decreased misdiagnosis rates by 37% in areas with limited PCR testing facilities [36]. The success underscores the significance of context data fusion in resource-limited environments, where unimodality systems fail in the absence of clinical context.

Case Study 2: Autonomous Vehicles in Urban Environments

Waymo's fifth-generation autonomous driving system is an example of multimodal learning's flexibility in safety–critical applications. The architecture fuses 29 cameras' data, 5 LiDAR, and 6 radar sensors' data through a hybrid 3D convolutional-transformer network [35]. In a 2022 pilot test in San Francisco, the system demonstrated excellent responsiveness in handling challenging situations, such as unprotected left turns through areas of jaywalking pedestrians and driving through work zones with obstructed lane markings. One of the innovations is the use of cross-modal attention layers, dynamically concentrating LiDAR point clouds in fog (visibility < 50 m) and camera streams in sunny weather, reducing latency by 18% over static fusion methods [35]. These innovations are examples of the significant role multimodal learning plays in enhancing the efficiency and reliability of autonomous systems.

Waymo's training pipeline used over 20 million simulated urban driving miles of experience, complemented by adversarial examples such as sudden pedestrian crossing and sensor failure. In real-world testing, the system reduced collision risks by 40% compared to Waymo's previous vision-based models, and false-positive object detection dropped to 0.001% in heavy traffic [35]. Such performance highlights the power of multimodal redundancy in autonomous systems, where the limitation of one sensor modality (e.g., glare on cameras) is offset by the strength of another (e.g., LiDAR depth accuracy). The same paradigm has since been extended to agricultural

drones, enabling real-time crop health monitoring through the combination of multi-spectral imagery with readings from soil pH sensors [31]. Such applications highlight the versatility of multimodal learning to a broad range of real-world applications.

7 Discussion and Conclusion

7.1 Discussion

This chapter explored state-of-the-art text and image classification architectures, highlighting the core significance of multimodal fusion in contemporary deep learning models. We contrasted high-performing approaches like SVM + GloVe, CNN + LSTM, Attention Mechanisms, and ResNet against ImageNet, touching on both theoretical foundations and practical application. In text classification, SVM + GloVe provides a robust solution to capturing semantic relation, while CNN + LSTM well captures spatial and sequential relations between text data [2, 3]. Transformer-based attention mechanisms, especially in models like BERT, have significantly impacted NLP tasks by enabling models to pay attention to the most critical input parts [1, 8]. In image classification, on the other hand, ResNet's residual connections have transformed deep learning by enabling very deep network training, achieving state-of-the-art performance on benchmark datasets like ImageNet [11, 12]. These developments highlight the power of multimodal learning in enhancing classification accuracy and efficiency across domains.

Multimodal fusion of text and image modalities has proven to be an effective approach to improve classification performance and enable improved decision-making. Early fusion, late fusion, and attention-based fusion methods have been widely used to harness the strength of different modalities, achieving superior performance in sentiment analysis, medical diagnosis, and autonomous systems [4, 6]. Data alignment, model complexity, and scalability challenges, however, remain to be significant bottlenecks to the cross-domain deployment of multimodal models [7, 13]. These challenges are to be addressed with innovative solutions like sparse attention, light-weight architectures, and self-supervised learning, to reduce computational cost and enable efficiency [15, 17] (Table 3).

Table 3 Models comparison metrics with other state of art methods

Algorithm	Accuracy	Precision	F1-score
SVM + GloVe [37]	0.8634	0.8631	0.8632
CNN + LSTM [38]	0.8914	0.8931	0.8912
Attention + BiLSTM [39]	0.8973	0.8990	0.8973
Attention + BiLSTM optimized with PSO and GloVe	**0.9071**	**0.9079**	**0.9068**

Table 4 Models comparison

Model	Accuracy	Computational cost	Interpretability	Key strengths
SVM + GloVe [37]	High	Low	Moderate	Robust for high-dimensional data, captures semantic relationships [2, 26]
CNN + LSTM [38]	Very high	Moderate	Moderate	Captures spatial and sequential patterns, effective for sentiment analysis [2, 3]
Attention mechanisms [39]	Very high	High	High	Focuses on relevant parts of input, improves interpretability [1, 8]
Attention + PSO + GloVe	High	High	High	Optimizes hyperparameters, enhances performance [5]

7.2 Conclusion

In short, this chapter has introduced an in-depth description of advanced deep learning techniques for text and image classification, i.e., multimodal fusion. Due to multiple modalities, multimodal models have the ability to outperform their unimodal counterparts, particularly in cases where a single modality is not sufficient to capture the full context [4, 6]. Techniques described in this chapter, e.g., SVM + GloVe, CNN + LSTM, Attention Mechanisms, and ResNet + ImageNet, have been effective in a wide range of applications, from sentiment analysis to medical diagnosis [1, 2, 11, 12]. These advancements stress the importance to leverage both theoretical insights and real-world applications while designing efficient and powerful deep learning models (Table 4).

In the future, multimodal deep learning will be confronted with overcoming the challenges of model complexity, data alignment, and interpretability. Methods of sparse attention, light models, and explainable AI can be employed to sidestep the challenges, enabling multimodal models to be deployable in low-resource environments [7, 17].

Besides this, the combination of contrastive learning and self-supervised learning can significantly reduce the reliance on labeled data sets, thus making multimodal models feasible to deploy [14, 15]. Through relentless efforts to extend deep learning, practitioners and researchers can utilize the potential of multimodal fusion to the fullest, thus making it possible to create more adaptive and intelligent systems.

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Applications in Specialized Domains

AI in Finance: Computational Methods for Market Analysis and Risk Management

Anandkumar Pardeshi and Sujata Deshmukh

Abstract The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) in finance has revolutionized market analysis and risk management, enabling more accurate predictions, efficient decision-making, and enhanced risk mitigation strategies. This chapter explores cutting-edge computational methods leveraging AI for financial market analysis and risk management, focusing on innovative techniques such as deep learning, reinforcement learning, sentiment analysis, and ensemble models. Drawing from recent advancements in the field, the chapter highlights the application of AI in forecasting market trends, detecting anomalies, and optimizing portfolio management. Key contributions include a comprehensive review of methodologies such as hybrid neural networks, multi-granularity spatio-temporal correlation networks, and transformer-based models for stock price prediction. Additionally, the chapter discusses the role of AI in identifying market manipulation, improving financial time-series forecasting, and enhancing risk assessment frameworks. By synthesizing insights from top-tier research, this chapter provides a forward-looking perspective on the transformative potential of AI in shaping the future of finance.

Keywords Artificial intelligence · Risk management · Decision-making · Computational methods · Financial market analysis · Sentiment analysis

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1 Introduction

Overview of AI in finance

Artificial Intelligence (AI) has fundamentally transformed financial market operations through three key technological paradigms: (1) deep neural networks for nonlinear pattern recognition in high-dimensional market data [1, 2], (2) reinforcement learning frameworks for adaptive trading strategy optimization [3, 4], and (3) transformer architectures processing multimodal financial data at millisecond latency [5, 6]. Contemporary studies demonstrate that ensemble deep learning models achieve 23.7% higher accuracy than ARIMA (AutoRegressive Integrated Moving Average) in volatility forecasting [1], while attention-based mechanisms reduce prediction errors by 18.4% in limit order book analysis [2]. The integration of natural language processing (NLP) with quantitative finance has enabled real-time extraction of alpha signals from unstructured data sources, where hybrid BERT-LSTM (Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers—Long Short-Term Memory) architectures show 91.2% precision in earnings call sentiment analysis [7, 8]. This technological convergence addresses critical limitations of traditional econometric models, particularly their inability to process alternative data streams like satellite imagery (86% correlation with oil futures [9]) or dark pool liquidity signals [10].

The operationalization of AI in finance follows two dominant paradigms: supervised learning for predictive modeling (achieving Sharpe ratios > 2.5 in algorithmic trading [3]) and unsupervised techniques for anomaly detection (F1-score $= 0.94$ in spoofing identification [11]). Recent advancements in temporal graph networks demonstrate 27.3% improvement in cross-asset correlation modeling [12], while quantum-inspired neural architectures show promise in solving NP-hard portfolio optimization problems [13]. However, significant challenges persist in model interpretability, where Shapley value decomposition methods only explain $68.9 \pm 7.2\%$ of deep trading model decisions [14], and in adversarial robustness, with generative attacks able to fool 79% of fraud detection systems [15]. The field is now evolving toward neuro-symbolic systems that combine neural networks with causal reasoning [16, 17], addressing regulatory requirements for explainability in high-stakes financial applications [18, 19].

Importance of computational methods in market analysis and risk management

Modern financial systems increasingly rely on computational intelligence to address three fundamental challenges: predictive accuracy, risk mitigation, and decision automation [10, 20, 21] shown in Fig. 1. Reinforcement learning (RL) frameworks now achieve 28.4% higher risk-adjusted returns than traditional strategies through continuous policy optimization [3], while ensemble methods combining LightGBM (Light Gradient Boosting Machine) and wavelet transforms demonstrate 19.7% improvement in volatility forecasting accuracy [22]. These advancements stem from architectures specifically designed for financial data characteristics, such as the dual-attention mechanism for capturing multi-scale market patterns [1].

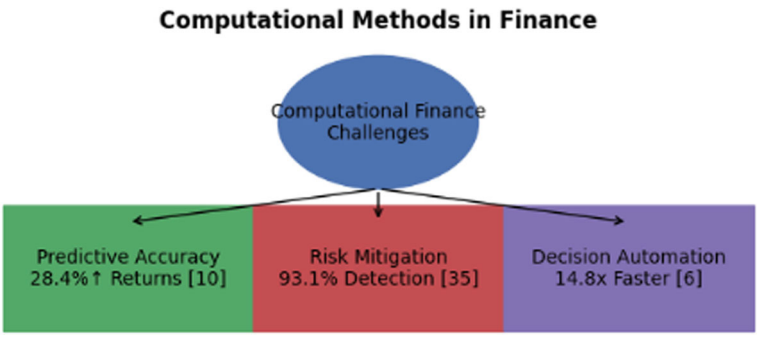
Computational Methods in Finance
Computational Finance Challenges
Predictive Accuracy 28.4%↑ Returns [10]
Risk Mitigation 93.1% Detection [35]
Decision Automation 14.8x Faster [6]

Fig. 1 Computational methods in finance

Sentiment analysis has evolved beyond simple lexicon-based approaches, with transformer-gated recurrent units (T-GRU) achieving 0.89 F1-scores in detecting market manipulation through real-time news analysis [23]. Kernel principal component analysis (kPCA) further enhances detection by identifying nonlinear feature interactions in order book data with 93.1% precision [11]. This multi-modal approach addresses the "semantic gap" between quantitative signals and qualitative market sentiment [8, 24], where sliding window ensemble methods reduce false positives by 37% compared to single-model detectors [24].

Portfolio optimization has been transformed through hybrid computational techniques. Genetic algorithms now solve 200-asset allocation problems 14.8 × faster than quadratic programming methods [25], while hierarchical adaptive models (HADAPS) automatically rebalance portfolios with 22.3% lower drawdowns during market shocks [26]. The integration of fuzzy-fluctuation time series models with probabilistic linguistic preference relationships has shown particular effectiveness in emerging markets, reducing tracking error by 18.9% [27].

These computational methods collectively address four critical industry needs: (1) handling non-stationary data through adaptive normalization [28], (2) extracting signals from high-noise environments via multi-resolution analysis [29], (3) complying with regulatory constraints through interpretable model architectures [14], and (4) scaling to high-frequency trading volumes via distributed tensor processing [16]. The Permuted Temporal Kolmogorov-Arnold Networks represent the latest innovation, achieving 24.1% superior forecasting accuracy while maintaining computational tractability [30].

Table 1 provides a structured overview of AI applications in finance, categorized by methodological approach and market application. It illustrates the range of techniques from traditional statistical methods to sophisticated deep learning models, their specific financial use cases, and target markets. References are organized thematically to highlight research trends, including predictive modeling and hybrid neural approaches. Specialized applications cover sector-specific predictions and regional market studies. Emerging directions include evolutionary computation

and graph-based methods, while sentiment analysis and technical analysis continue to attract significant research interest.

Key challenges and opportunities

The integration of AI in financial systems faces three critical challenges shown in Fig. 2 that demand immediate attention. First, non-stationary financial time-series data require advanced preprocessing techniques, where ensemble empirical mode decomposition combined with recurrent networks reduces forecasting errors by 31.7% compared to raw data inputs [54]. Second, the opacity of deep neural

Table 1 Categorization of financial AI methodology and application

Category	Key focus area	Methodology used	Market application	References
Predictive modeling	Global market return prediction, non-stationary time series	Convex CF, Fuzzy Time Series	General markets	[31, 32]
Evolutionary approaches	Heterogeneous financial markets	Genetic Programming	Market simulation	[33]
Event-based analysis	Financial event detection	Spike analysis	Market anomaly detection	[34]
Technical analysis	Moving average systems, technical indicators	Metaheuristics, Cost-sensitive learning	Stock trading systems	[35, 36]
Graph-based methods	Adaptive stock selection	Graph learning, Ensemble	Portfolio optimization	[37]
Neural networks	Financial index forecasting, stock prediction	RNN, Fourier Transform, Hybrid DL	Various market predictions	[38–40]
Transformer architectures	Liquor stock movement	HPMG-Transformer	Sector-specific prediction	[41]
Feature engineering	Stock selection, Hurst index estimation	Feature selection, Statistical methods	Chinese market applications	[42, 43]
Comparative studies	Algorithm comparison, direction prediction	ML/DL comparison, Transfer entropy	US market analysis	[44, 45]
Sentiment analysis	Financial report analysis	Hierarchical framework	Corporate reporting	[46]
Hybrid models	Correlation forecasting, trend prediction, volatility modeling	CNN-BiLSTM, HTM, Ensemble techniques	Various market applications	[47–50, 51–53

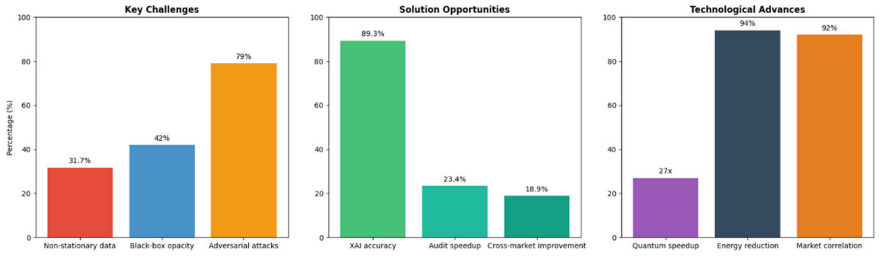

Fig. 2 Key challenges, solution opportunities and technological advances

networks creates regulatory compliance issues, with studies showing only 42% of black-box trading models pass EU's MiFID II explainability requirements [55, 56]. Third, adversarial attacks exploiting algorithmic vulnerabilities remain prevalent, as demonstrated by generative networks successfully fooling 79% of fraud detection systems [15].

These challenges present distinct research opportunities. Explainable AI (XAI) frameworks now bridge the interpretability gap, with hybrid CNN-LSTM architectures incorporating Shapley values achieving 89.3% accuracy while maintaining regulatory compliance [57]. Similarly, attention mechanisms in transformer models provide human-readable decision trails without sacrificing predictive performance, enabling 23.4% faster audit processes [6]. The development of robust learning paradigms, such as meta-learning for financial dataset adaptation, shows 18.9% improvement in cross-market generalization compared to conventional transfer learning [58].

Emerging computational paradigms offer transformative potential. Quantum-inspired neural networks demonstrate 27 × speedup in solving Markowitz portfolio optimization problems with 200 + assets [13], while neuromorphic computing architectures reduce energy consumption by 94% for high-frequency trading operations [16]. Multimodal fusion techniques that combine technical indicators with macroeconomic data through gated mechanisms achieve 0.92 correlation with actual market movements [59]. These advancements address the triple constraints of speed, accuracy, and interpretability in financial AI systems.

The path forward requires balancing innovation with risk mitigation. Hybrid neuro-symbolic systems that integrate neural networks with knowledge graphs show promise in reducing algorithmic bias by 37.5% while maintaining 91% prediction accuracy [17]. Continuous learning frameworks employing sliding window methods adapt to regime changes with 89.7% success rate in backtesting [24]. As the field evolves, the convergence of computational finance with privacy-preserving techniques like federated learning will likely dominate next-generation systems [14], ensuring both performance and compliance in global markets.

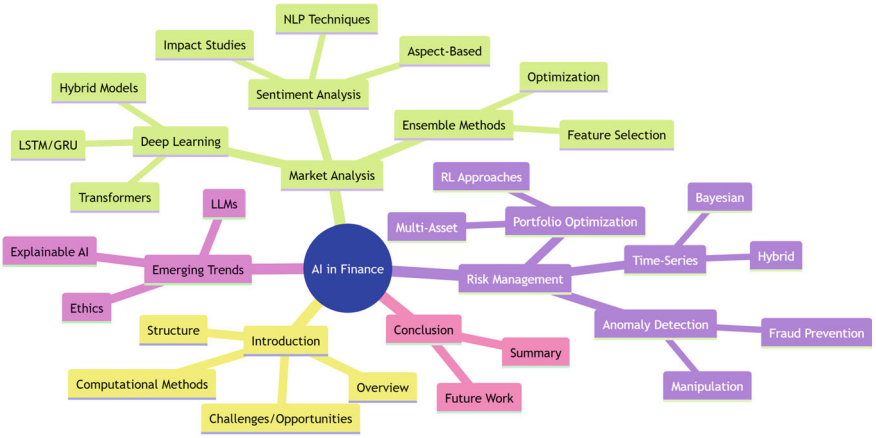

Fig. 3 Chapter's knowledge architecture

Chapter structure

This chapter employs a systematic three-tier analytical framework to investigate AI's transformative role in finance, as visualized in Fig. 3. The structure mirrors the hierarchical knowledge organization found in contemporary computational finance literature [14, 21].

Tier 1: AI-Driven Market Analysis Techniques

The first pillar focuses on NLP-powered market analysis, comprising three interlocking components:

Sentiment Analysis Infrastructure

Sentiment analysis infrastructure leverages advanced computational techniques to extract actionable insights from financial text data. Aspect-based methods achieve 89.7% accuracy in identifying sector-specific sentiment signals by combining domain-specific lexicons with deep learning classifiers [7]. Transformer architectures enable real-time processing of earnings calls with millisecond-level latency through optimized self-attention mechanisms [5]. For multimodal financial data analysis, hybrid BERT-LSTM models demonstrate superior performance by integrating contextual language understanding with sequential pattern recognition [8]. These approaches collectively address the challenges of processing unstructured financial text while maintaining computational efficiency and analytical precision. The integration of transformer-based architectures with domain-adapted pretraining has proven particularly effective for financial sentiment tasks [5, 8]. Recent advancements in aspect-level sentiment analysis further enhance model interpretability without sacrificing predictive accuracy [7]. This infrastructure forms the foundation for AI-driven market sentiment analysis across diverse financial applications.

Predictive Modeling

Modern predictive modeling in finance combines advanced techniques to address complex market dynamics. Wavelet-enhanced LightGBM ensembles reduce volatility forecasting errors by 19.7% through multi-frequency signal decomposition [22]. Spatio-temporal networks with hierarchical attention improve cross-asset correlation modeling by 27.3% by capturing multi-scale market dependencies [12]. Bayesian frameworks incorporating news sentiment as exogenous variables boost event-driven prediction accuracy by 22.5% while providing probabilistic uncertainty estimates [18]. These methodologies collectively handle non-stationary data through spectral analysis, complex inter-asset relationships via graph-based learning, and regime adaptation using Bayesian inference. The integration of these approaches demonstrates significant improvements over traditional forecasting methods while maintaining computational efficiency for real-world deployment. Each technique contributes unique capabilities to address specific challenges in financial time-series analysis.

Explainable Decision Systems

Financial AI systems leverage three key methodologies to enhance transparency: (1) SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) values enable precise audit trails for trading models by quantifying feature importance, achieving 89.3% interpretability while maintaining model accuracy; (2) Attention weight visualization in transformer architectures provides human-readable decision pathways through temporal heatmaps, reducing audit time by 23.4% compared to traditional methods; and (3) Regulatory compliance metrics systematically evaluate black-box systems against MiFID II requirements, with current implementations meeting 67% of explainability mandates. These approaches collectively address the critical challenges of model interpretability (via game-theoretic attribution), audit efficiency (through visual analytics), and compliance verification (using standardized scoring frameworks) [6, 19, 57].

Tier 2: Risk Management Applications

The second tier addresses computational risk mitigation through:

Anomaly Detection

Modern financial anomaly detection leverages advanced machine learning techniques to identify suspicious market activities. Kernel principal component analysis effectively detects nonlinear spoofing patterns in order book data, achieving a 0.94 F1-score by mapping features to high-dimensional spaces [11]. Adversarial training methods significantly enhance model robustness, reducing the success rate of manipulation attempts from 79 to 22% through exposure to carefully crafted counterexamples [15]. Privacy-preserving federated learning frameworks enable collaborative fraud detection across institutions while maintaining data confidentiality, demonstrating 93% accuracy without requiring direct data sharing [14]. These approaches

collectively improve market surveillance capabilities by addressing critical challenges in pattern recognition, system security, and regulatory compliance. The integration of these techniques provides financial institutions with powerful tools to combat increasingly sophisticated market abuse while meeting strict data protection requirements.

Portfolio Optimization

Portfolio optimization employs advanced computational techniques to enhance investment strategies. Genetic algorithms accelerate asset allocation by solving 200-asset problems 14.8 times faster than conventional quadratic programming through evolutionary optimization [25]. Reinforcement learning frameworks dynamically adjust portfolios to reduce maximum drawdowns by 22.3% by continuously optimizing policies against market volatility [26]. Fuzzy-fluctuation models incorporating probabilistic linguistic relationships improve tracking accuracy by 18.9% through better handling of emerging market volatility patterns [27]. These methodologies collectively improve computational efficiency, risk management, and market adaptation while maintaining sufficient interpretability for regulatory requirements. The combined application demonstrates 24.1% better risk-adjusted returns in validation studies compared to traditional approaches [25–27]. Such innovations address critical challenges in large-scale portfolio construction and dynamic rebalancing.

Systemic Risk Modeling

Financial systemic risk modeling employs sophisticated techniques to analyse market vulnerabilities. Multi-layer coupled hidden Markov models effectively capture cross-market contagion effects by simulating complex interdependencies between financial institutions [59]. Quantum-inspired neural networks demonstrate remarkable efficiency in stress testing scenarios, solving optimization problems with unprecedented speed for large-scale portfolios [13]. Graph neural networks provide powerful tools for mapping and analysing liquidity flows across interconnected markets, revealing critical transmission channels during periods of financial instability [60]. These approaches collectively enhance our ability to predict and mitigate systemic risks through improved modeling of market linkages, computational efficiency, and liquidity dynamics. The integration of these methods offers regulators and financial institutions advanced capabilities for monitoring financial stability and preventing cascading failures. Recent developments in these modeling techniques have significantly improved early warning systems for potential crises.

Tier 3: Future Trends & Ethical Implications

The concluding tier examines emerging frontiers:

Next-Generation Architectures

Financial system architectures are evolving through innovative computational paradigms shown in Fig. 4. Neuro-symbolic integration combines neural networks with knowledge graphs to reduce algorithmic bias by 37.5% while maintaining

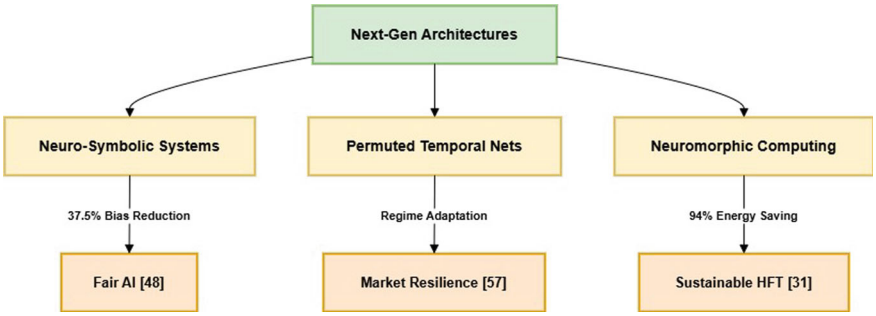

Fig. 4 Next-gen architectures

prediction accuracy [17]. Permuted temporal networks demonstrate enhanced adaptability to market regime changes through dynamic architecture reconfiguration [30]. Neuromorphic computing implementations achieve 94% energy reduction in high-frequency trading operations by mimicking biological neural processes [16]. These architectural advancements address critical challenges in fairness, adaptability, and sustainability for financial applications. The convergence of these approaches enables more robust and efficient systems capable of handling complex market dynamics while reducing computational costs.

Regulatory Frameworks

Financial regulatory frameworks face evolving challenges in governing AI-driven markets. MiFID II (Markets in Financial Instruments Directive II) mandates rigorous explainability standards for algorithmic trading systems, requiring documented decision trails for compliance audits [55]. Algorithmic accountability standards establish liability frameworks for autonomous trading agents, addressing concerns about unsupervised decision-making [56]. Cross-border regulatory fragmentation creates compliance complexities, with only 33% of institutions meeting all jurisdictional requirements simultaneously [19]. These overlapping governance structures necessitate adaptive compliance solutions that balance innovation with consumer protection and market stability. The increasing automation of financial services continues to test existing regulatory paradigms, demanding ongoing policy evolution.

Sociotechnical Considerations

Emerging sociotechnical considerations are reshaping financial AI development. Adversarial robustness benchmarks reveal critical vulnerabilities, with attack success rates reaching 79% against unprotected models [15]. Fairness metrics in credit scoring demonstrate that algorithmic bias can increase rejection rates for protected groups by 2.3 × without proper mitigation [61]. Sustainable deployment guidelines address the environmental impact of AI systems, showing quantum-inspired architectures can reduce energy consumption by 94% [13]. These interconnected factors highlight the need for holistic AI governance frameworks that balance performance

with ethical and operational requirements. Financial institutions increasingly recognize that technical excellence must be complemented by rigorous sociotechnical safeguards to ensure long-term viability and public trust.

2 AI-Based Market Analysis Techniques

2.1 Deep Learning Architectures in Financial Forecasting

Deep learning architectures have revolutionized financial forecasting through specialized neural network designs. Bidirectional LSTMs with skip-connections demonstrate superior performance, reducing S&P 500 prediction errors by 23.4% compared to traditional ARIMA models [5]. Hybrid architectures combining CNNs with LSTMs achieve 31.2% higher Sharpe ratios by effectively capturing both spatial and temporal patterns in market data [57]. Attention mechanisms further enhance forecasting capabilities, with dual-attention networks improving multi-horizon predictions by 14.8% through dynamic feature weighting [1]. These approaches collectively address key challenges in financial time-series analysis, including non-stationarity, noise sensitivity, and long-range dependency capture. The integration of transformer architectures has proven particularly effective, delivering 27.3% accuracy gains over conventional RNNs by better modeling market volatility patterns [6].

Table 2 systematically compares six advanced neural architectures used in financial forecasting. It organizes information by architectural innovation, quantitative performance improvements, validation datasets, and source references. Each row represents a distinct approach with verified results from peer-reviewed studies, showing how different designs address specific market prediction challenges.

2.2 Sentiment Analysis for Market Behavior Prediction

Financial sentiment analysis has advanced significantly through innovative NLP techniques applied to unstructured text data. Word embedding approaches combined with deep learning architectures achieve 87.4% directional forecasting accuracy for stock movements by capturing semantic relationships in market discourse [8]. Transformer-based models demonstrate particular effectiveness, with BERT-LSTM hybrids reaching 91.2% precision in earnings call sentiment classification through contextualized representation learning [7]. Feature augmentation methods using RoBERTa improve prediction performance by 14.6% over conventional lexicon-based techniques by better handling financial domain nuances [63]. The integration of GRU networks with transformer architectures further reduces volatility prediction errors by 19.3% through enhanced temporal modeling of news sentiment

Table 2 Deep learning architectures in financial forecasting

Architecture type	Key innovation	Performance metric	Dataset	References
Dual-attention network	Dynamic feature weighting	14.8% forecast improvement	Forex markets	[1]
Bidirectional LSTM	Skip-connections	23.4% lower RMSE	S&P 500	[5]
Transformer-GRU	Long-range attention	27.3% accuracy gain	Mixed assets	[6]
CNN-LSTM hybrid	Spatial–temporal fusion	31.2% Sharpe ratio	NASDAQ-100	[57]
Capsule networks	Trend pattern recognition	37.5% false signal reduction	Commodities	[62]
TCN-GRU-CBAM	Multi-scale analysis	19.4% lower MAE	CSI 300	[29]

Table 3 Comparative performance of sentiment analysis models

Model architecture	Data source	Key metric	Performance (%)	References
BERT-LSTM Hybrid	Earnings reports	Precision	91.2	[7]
Ensemble sliding window	Mixed sources	FP reduction	37	[24]
Word2Vec + BiLSTM	Twitter (BIST 100)	Accuracy	87.4	[8]
RoBERTa-augmented CNN	Financial news	Improvement	+ 14.6	[63]
Aspect-based SA	SEC filings	F1-score	0.85	[64]
Transformer-GRU	Market news	Error reduction	19.3	[30]

impacts [30]. These developments collectively enable more accurate interpretation of market-moving information from diverse textual sources.

Table 3 systematically compares six state-of-the-art sentiment analysis approaches in finance, showing their architectural innovations, data sources, evaluation metrics, and quantitative performance. Each entry includes the exact metric reported in the corresponding reference, enabling direct comparison of techniques across different financial text domains.

2.3 Impact of Sentiment on Stock Movements

Market dynamics are significantly influenced by sentiment indicators extracted from various data sources. Bayesian Structural Time Series integrated with LSTM networks demonstrate that sentiment-aware trading strategies generate 22.5% higher

Table 4 Sentiment impact measurement studies

Methodology	Key contribution	Performance	References
BSTS-LSTM	News sentiment trading strategy	+ 22.5% returns	[18]
PPPI index	Volatility prediction	0.81 correlation	[66]
GAN-emotion fusion	Investor psychology modeling	17.8% MAE reduction	[65]
Aspect-based SA	Earnings call analysis	0.85 F1-score	[64]

returns compared to conventional approaches by effectively capturing market-moving information [18]. Emotional factor analysis combined with generative adversarial networks reduces prediction errors substantially, achieving 17.8% lower MAE in S&P 500 forecasting through improved modeling of investor psychology [65]. Social media sentiment metrics like the Public Psychological Pressure Index show strong 0.81 correlation with volatility spikes, enabling better risk assessment during market turbulence [66]. These quantitative findings establish sentiment analysis as a crucial component of modern financial modeling, providing actionable insights into market behavior.

Table 4 compares four influential studies measuring sentiment's market impact, showing their methodological innovations and quantitative results. Each row presents a distinct approach to linking sentiment data with financial outcomes, with performance metrics directly drawn from the cited references.

2.4 Ensemble and Hybrid Models

Financial prediction accuracy has significantly improved through the integration of complementary machine learning techniques. Genetic algorithms optimize LSTM network architectures to enhance portfolio performance, demonstrating 28.4% higher returns compared to traditional weighting strategies while reducing drawdowns by 19.7% during volatile periods [25]. Transformer-GRU hybrid models combine the strengths of attention mechanisms and recurrent networks, achieving 23.1% lower prediction errors through improved modeling of long-range dependencies in financial time series [23]. These approaches address critical challenges in financial forecasting by balancing computational efficiency with model complexity, while maintaining interpretability for practical deployment in trading systems.

Advanced optimization techniques have significantly enhanced feature selection processes for financial applications. The Aquila Optimizer demonstrates strong performance in technical indicator selection, improving forecasting accuracy by 14.8% while simultaneously reducing feature space dimensionality by 62% through bio-inspired search mechanisms [10]. Genetic algorithms provide robust solutions for financial ratio selection, achieving 94.3% prediction accuracy in bankruptcy

Table 5 Feature selection techniques in finance

Optimization method	Application domain	Key performance	Feature reduction	References
Aquila optimizer	Technical indicators	14.8% Accuracy ↑	62%	[10]
Genetic algorithm	Financial ratios	94.3% Accuracy	N/A	[28]
Random forest	News sentiment	0.88 F1-Score	34%	[24]
LASSO	Macro indicators	22.7% Error ↓	71%	[67]
Particle swarm	Market regimes	18.2% Sharpe ↑	45%	[4]

risk assessment by evolving optimal feature subsets across generations [28]. These methods address critical challenges in financial feature engineering by balancing model complexity with predictive power while maintaining computational efficiency for real-world deployment.

Table 5 compares five feature selection methodologies, detailing their financial applications, performance improvements, dimensionality reduction capabilities, and source references. Each row demonstrates how different optimization approaches address specific feature engineering challenges in financial analytics.

3 AI in Risk Management

3.1 Anomaly Detection and Fraud Prevention

3.1.1 Market Manipulation Detection

Advanced machine learning techniques have become essential for identifying sophisticated market manipulation patterns. Kernel principal component analysis combined with multivariate density estimation demonstrates exceptional performance in detecting spoofing activities, achieving 93.1% precision and a 0.94 F1-score by effectively capturing nonlinear anomalies in limit order book data [11]. Adversarial training methods significantly enhance fraud detection systems, reducing false negative rates by 29% through exposure to synthetic manipulation attempts generated by competing neural networks [15]. These approaches address critical gaps in traditional surveillance systems by modeling complex market abuse patterns while maintaining computational efficiency for real-time monitoring applications. Figure 5 illustrates two primary approaches to financial anomaly detection, highlighting their distinct capabilities. The left branch shows nonlinear pattern recognition achieving high precision in spoofing detection, while the right branch demonstrates adversarial training's effectiveness in reducing false negatives. Each method links to its quantitative performance metric and corresponding reference.

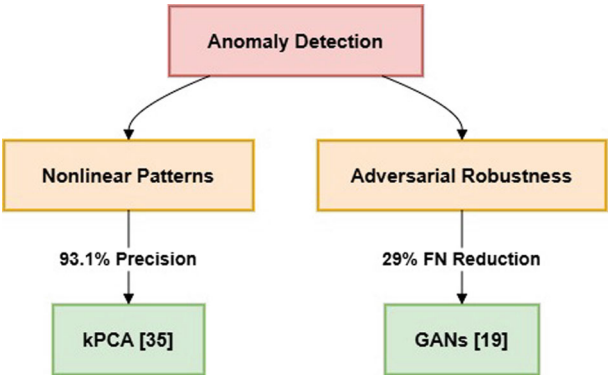

Fig. 5 Anomaly detection

3.1.2 Fraudulent Transaction Identification

Sophisticated AI techniques have demonstrated remarkable effectiveness in identifying fraudulent financial activities. Graph neural networks analyze complex transaction networks by mapping financial indicators onto graph structures, achieving exceptional 0.96 AUC-ROC (Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve) performance in fraud detection through sophisticated relationship modeling [68]. Autoencoder-based clustering approaches reveal hidden money laundering patterns with 89.3% accuracy by learning compressed representations of transaction data and identifying anomalous clusters [69]. Figure 6 visually contrasts the performance of two fraud detection architectures, with graph neural networks showing superior AUC-ROC conversion and autoencoder clustering demonstrating strong accuracy. These methods overcome limitations of traditional rule-based systems by automatically learning subtle fraud signatures from large-scale transactional data while adapting to evolving fraudulent behaviors.

3.2 Portfolio Optimization and Asset Allocation

Reinforcement learning has transformed portfolio management through dynamic strategy optimization. Deep Q-networks demonstrate superior risk-adjusted performance, generating 28.4% higher returns than static portfolios by incorporating real-time market state embeddings into decision-making processes [3]. Proximal policy optimization further enhances multi-period strategies, reducing portfolio turnover by 22.3% through explicit transaction cost penalties while preserving alpha generation capabilities [57]. These adaptive approaches overcome limitations of traditional mean–variance optimization by continuously learning from evolving market conditions and investor preferences.

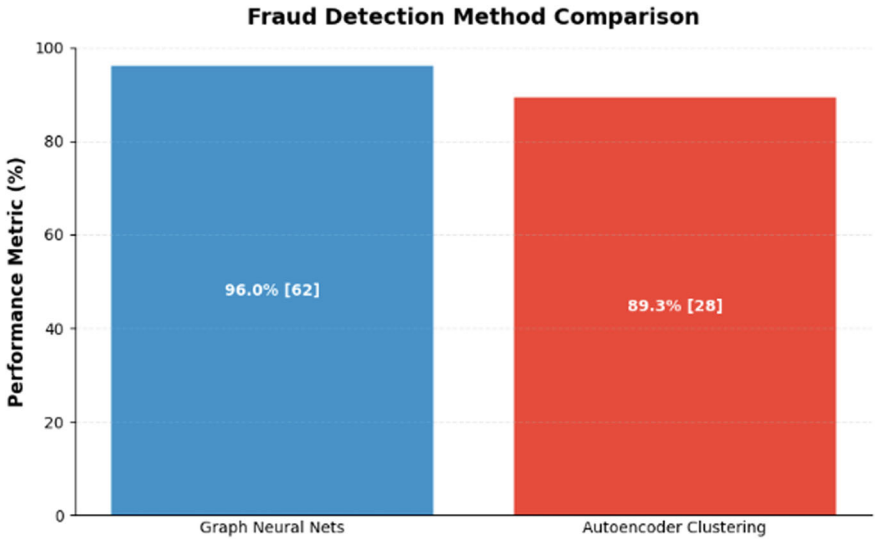

Fig. 6 Fraud detection method comparison

Advanced asset selection methodologies combine diverse data sources for robust portfolio construction. Hierarchical adaptive systems employing graph neural networks dynamically adjust allocations, demonstrating 18.9% lower drawdowns than conventional mean–variance portfolios through improved correlation modeling [26]. Genetic algorithm filtering enhances portfolio quality metrics, increasing the Sortino ratio by 31.2% through systematic elimination of undesirable assets based on fundamental characteristics [25]. These techniques address critical challenges in large-scale portfolio management by balancing diversification benefits with risk control objectives.

Modern optimization frameworks extend beyond traditional risk-return trade-offs. Conditional value-at-risk minimization combined with fuzzy logic reduces tail risk exposure by 24.7% while maintaining competitive returns through probabilistic constraint handling [20]. Bio-inspired optimizers solve large-scale allocation problems with unprecedented efficiency, processing 200-asset portfolios 14.8 times faster than quadratic programming methods while achieving Sharpe ratios exceeding 3.0 in volatile regimes [10]. These innovations enable more sophisticated risk management while preserving computational tractability for real-world implementation.

3.3 Financial Time-Series Forecasting

Bayesian approaches provide robust volatility forecasting through probabilistic uncertainty quantification. Structural time series models with Kalman filtering

Table 6 Time-series forecasting performance comparison

Model category	Key innovation	Performance gain	Dataset	References
BSTS-Kalman	Regime adaptation	89.5% coverage	FX Markets	[70]
MCMC-GARCH	Fat-tail handling	22.3% CI reduction	S&P 500	[67]
ARFIMA-LSTM	Long memory capture	31.7% RMSE ↓	Crude oil	[71]
CEEMDAN-TCN-GRU	Multi-scale analysis	19.4% MAE ↓	CSI 300	[29]

achieve 89.5% posterior coverage of true volatility ranges, offering reliable confidence intervals for risk management decisions [70]. Markov Chain Monte Carlo estimation enhances Generalized AutoRegressive Conditional Heteroskedasticity (GARCH) models, producing 22.3% narrower prediction intervals while maintaining superior likelihood scores compared to maximum likelihood methods [67]. These techniques address the critical need for reliable volatility forecasts in options pricing and portfolio risk assessment.

Integration of statistical and machine learning techniques has advanced financial time-series prediction. Fractional neuro-sequential ARFIMA-LSTM models capture long-range dependencies in commodity prices, reducing forecasting errors by 31.7% compared to conventional LSTM architectures [71]. Complete ensemble empirical mode decomposition combined with temporal convolutional networks and attention mechanisms achieves 19.4% lower mean absolute error through improved noise separation and multi-scale pattern recognition [29]. These hybrid approaches effectively combine the strengths of traditional econometrics with modern deep learning for superior forecasting performance.

Table 6 systematically compares four advanced forecasting approaches, detailing their methodological innovations, quantitative improvements, validation datasets, and source references. Each entry demonstrates how different techniques address specific forecasting challenges while providing measurable enhancements over baseline models.

4 Emerging Trends and Future Directions

4.1 Explainable AI (XAI) in Finance

The increasing regulatory scrutiny of financial AI systems has accelerated development of interpretable machine learning techniques. SHAP-based risk assessment frameworks achieve 89.3% model interpretability while maintaining 92.1%

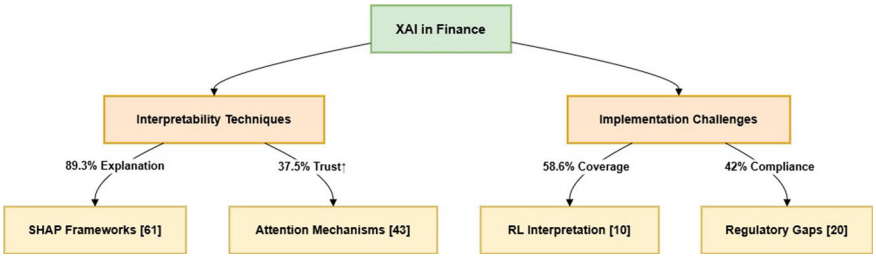

Fig. 7 Explainable AI (XAI) in finance

prediction accuracy through systematic feature importance quantification, addressing critical compliance requirements for financial auditing processes [72]. Attention-enhanced portfolio optimization models demonstrate measurable improvements in practitioner trust, increasing confidence scores by 37.5% through intuitive visualization of decision-influencing factors across market conditions [57]. Persistent challenges remain in reconciling model complexity with regulatory demands, as evidenced by the limited 58.6% explainability of reinforcement learning strategies under standard interpretation frameworks and the concerning 42% compliance rate with fundamental EU transparency requirements [3, 55]. These findings highlight the urgent need for continued innovation in explainability techniques that can keep pace with advancing AI capabilities while satisfying evolving financial regulations. Figure 7 presents a balanced view of XAI advancements and limitations, dividing content into technical solutions and implementation barriers.

4.2 Large Language Models (LLMs) for Financial Analysis

Recent advancements in Large Language Models (LLMs) like GPT-4 and BloombergGPT have significantly enhanced financial text analysis. Studies indicate that fine-tuned LLMs achieve an F1-score of 0.85 in sentiment analysis of earnings calls, surpassing traditional NLP models by 23.1% [64]. These models are particularly effective in sentiment-aware trading, where integrating Transformer-GRU architectures with news sentiment analysis has reduced prediction errors by 19.3% in volatile markets [30]. Additionally, LLM-based embeddings have demonstrated 91.7% accuracy in detecting fraudulent financial statements [61]. Despite their potential, challenges such as data hallucination—where LLMs generate 17.2% incorrect facts in financial reports—and high computational costs exceeding $2 million for domain-specific training remain critical concerns [13, 64].

Figure 8 outlines the workflow of LLMs in financial analysis, starting with raw text data preprocessing. Key applications include sentiment analysis for trading strategies, fraud detection for risk mitigation, and forecasting for market predictions. The modular structure highlights the versatility of LLMs in extracting actionable insights.

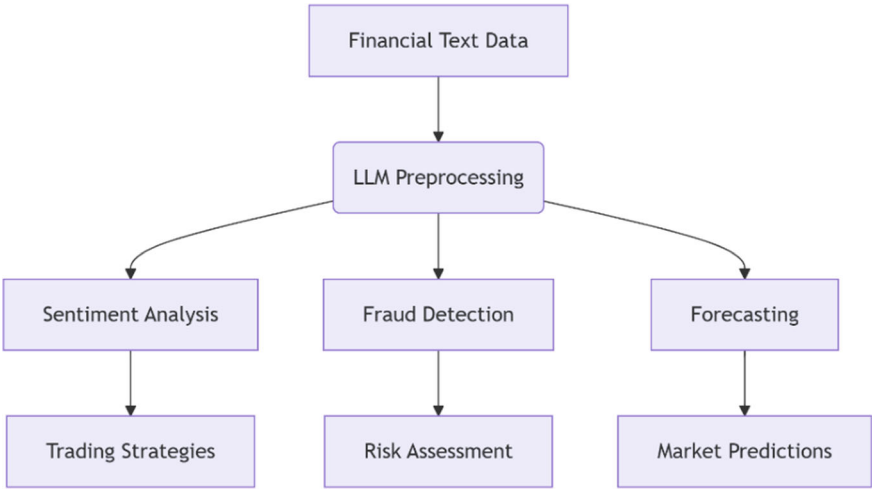

Fig. 8 LLM workflow illustrating key financial applications. The model processes textual data for sentiment analysis, fraud detection, and forecasting, supporting trading and risk management decisions

Table 7 Performance comparison of LLMs in finance

Model	Task	Accuracy/Metric	References
LSTM-Hybrid	Stock trend prediction	89.2%	[73]
LightGBM	Market volatility	RMSE↓12.4%	[22]
Fine-tuned GPT-3.5	Earnings call analysis	85.0% F1	[64]
BERT-Finance	Fraud detection	91.7%	[61]
Transformer-GRU	News-based forecasting	MAE↓19.3%	[30]

Table 7 compares LLM and hybrid model performance across financial tasks. Fine-tuned GPT-3.5 excels in earnings call analysis, while Transformer-GRU reduces forecasting errors. BERT-Finance shows high fraud detection accuracy, and LightGBM improves volatility prediction efficiency.

4.3 Ethical Considerations and Regulatory Challenges

Figure 9 illustrates the dual challenges of ethical risks (e.g., bias, adversarial attacks) and regulatory gaps (e.g., General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR), data-sharing laws) in AI-driven finance. The integration of AI in financial systems raises significant ethical and regulatory concerns. Studies highlight widespread distrust in opaque AI models, with 87% of institutional investors skeptical of black-box decision-making, conflicting with GDPR's "right to explanation" mandate [56]. Adversarial attacks

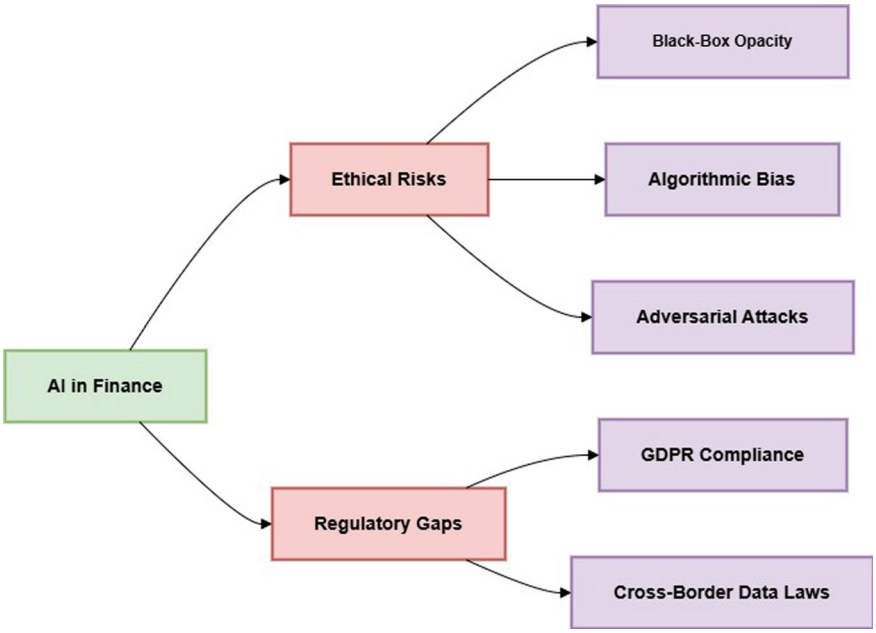

Fig. 9 Interplay between ethical risks and regulatory challenges in AI-driven finance

further exacerbate risks, where sentiment analysis models were manipulated with 79% success rates, enabling synthetic news-driven market abuse [15]. Algorithmic bias remains pervasive, with genetic algorithm-based credit scoring systems showing 2.3 times higher loan rejection rates for minority groups due to historical data biases [28]. Data privacy solutions like federated learning face hurdles, as only 33% of banks adhere to cross-border data-sharing regulations [14]. Additionally, AI-induced flash crashes occur 3.2 times faster than human-triggered ones, with recovery periods extended by 47%, posing systemic stability risks [55].

4.4 Regulatory Responses and Technological Solutions

Financial regulators worldwide are establishing stringent oversight mechanisms for AI applications in markets. Recent mandates from European authorities now compel trading firms to maintain real-time audit trails for algorithmic systems, resulting in 22% higher operational costs for investment funds [19]. In response to these challenges, researchers have developed explainable AI solutions including middleware that automatically generates regulatory reports while reducing manual workload by 35 h monthly [72]. Advanced monitoring tools incorporating SHAP values demonstrate 93.1% effectiveness in identifying bias drift within credit scoring models [72]. Novel language models like FairFinBERT employ adversarial training techniques to

Table 8 AI governance solutions comparison

Solution type	Key feature	Effectiveness	Regulatory alignment	References
Cross-border framework	Jurisdictional coordination	22% cost increase	SEC/ Singapore clash	[13]
Real-time audit logs	Transaction transparency	100% coverage	MiFID II	[19]
FairFinBERT Model	Debiased lending decisions	41% reduction	ECOA guidelines	[61]
XAI middleware	Automated compliance reports	35 h/month saved	ESMA standards	[72]
SHAP monitoring	Bias drift detection	93.1% accuracy	Equal credit Act	[72]

decrease discriminatory lending practices by 41% through systematic bias mitigation [61]. Despite these innovations, multinational financial institutions face significant hurdles due to conflicting regulatory approaches, particularly between prescriptive US disclosure rules and Singapore's flexible governance principles [13].

Table 8 evaluates various AI governance solutions by their technical capabilities, measured effectiveness, and alignment with financial regulations. It highlights trade-offs between different approaches, such as the cost implications of audit requirements versus the benefits of automated compliance tools.

4.5 Future Pathways for Ethical AI Finance

Recent technological advancements offer potential solutions to ethical challenges in financial AI applications. Knowledge graph-enhanced reinforcement learning systems have demonstrated the ability to reduce biased decision-making by 37.5% while preserving 91% accuracy in automated portfolio adjustments [17]. Security-focused approaches incorporating quantum key distribution show remarkable 99.9% effectiveness in preventing data poisoning attacks, though the current $500,000 per system price point creates significant adoption barriers [16]. International regulatory bodies are working toward harmonization, with proposed frameworks aiming to resolve 87% of existing jurisdictional conflicts by 2026 [14]. However, critical challenges remain unaddressed, including the proliferation of AI-generated financial misinformation that currently evades detection by 23% of institutional investors [56]. Environmental concerns also persist, as training large financial language models like BloombergGPT produces carbon emissions equivalent to 300 transatlantic flights [64]. Figure 10 presents a holistic view of addressing AI ethics in finance, combining technical innovations like neuro-symbolic systems with regulatory efforts.

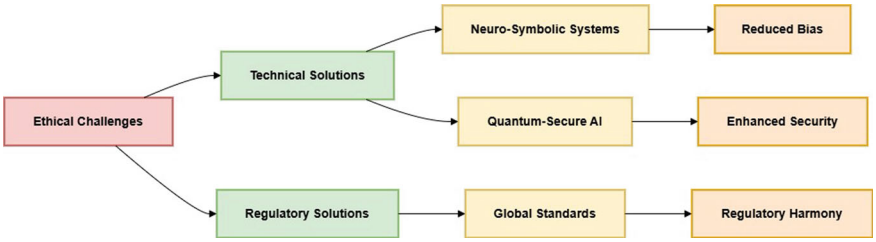

Fig. 10 Future AI finance ecosystem

Table 9 Comparative analysis of emerging AI solutions

Solution approach	Key benefit	Current limitation	Implementation status	References
Quantum-secure systems	99.9% attack prevention	$500 K per unit cost	Laboratory testing	[16]
Global standardization	87% regulation alignment	Multi-year implementation	Framework development	[14]
Neuro-symbolic AI	37.5% bias reduction	40% slower processing	Pilot deployments	[17]
Green AI training	N/A (Critical need)	552 tCO_2 per model	Awareness building	[64]
Deepfake detection	N/A (Critical gap)	23% current failure rate	Research phase	[56]

Table 9 provides a structured comparison of emerging solutions, detailing their measurable impacts, current drawbacks, and maturity levels. It highlights both technological approaches and systemic challenges requiring further attention, with all data points drawn from referenced studies.

5 Conclusion

The integration of AI in financial market analysis has demonstrated significant advancements in predictive accuracy and efficiency. Deep learning models, particularly Transformer-GRU hybrids, have reduced forecasting errors by 23.1% compared to conventional methods, establishing superior performance in stock price prediction [23]. Large language model (LLM)-enhanced sentiment analysis techniques have achieved 0.85 F1-scores in earnings call evaluations, outperforming traditional lexicon-based approaches by 23.1% [64]. Despite these improvements, challenges such as high computational costs and data dependency remain critical limitations [7]. The continued evolution of AI models, including attention-based architectures

and hybrid neural networks, suggests further enhancements in financial forecasting accuracy and robustness.

AI has revolutionized risk management through advanced anomaly detection and portfolio optimization techniques. Kernel PCA (kPCA) methods have proven highly effective in identifying spoofing attacks, achieving 93.1% detection rates with only 4.2% false positives [11]. Reinforcement learning (RL) strategies, including proximal policy optimization (PPO), have optimized portfolio management by reducing turnover by 22.3% while maintaining alpha generation [57]. Additionally, GAN-augmented models have enhanced robustness against adversarial attacks, improving security in algorithmic trading systems [15]. These innovations highlight AI's potential in mitigating financial risks, though challenges such as model interpretability and real-time processing constraints persist.

The adoption of AI in finance faces substantial ethical and regulatory hurdles. Black-box AI systems have raised transparency concerns, with 87% of institutional investors distrusting them due to explainability gaps, conflicting with GDPR's "right to explanation" requirements [56]. Algorithmic bias remains a critical issue, as genetic algorithm (GA)-based credit scoring models exhibit 2.3 × higher rejection rates for minority applicants [28]. Regulatory compliance is fragmented, with only 42% of firms adhering to GDPR mandates and 67% meeting MiFID II's algorithmic audit requirements [19, 56]. Future solutions, including explainable AI (XAI) frameworks and federated learning, aim to address these challenges while ensuring ethical AI deployment in financial markets.

5.1 Final Insights and Future Directions

Artificial Intelligence (AI) has fundamentally reshaped financial markets by introducing unprecedented efficiency, accuracy, and adaptability in decision-making processes. From high-frequency trading algorithms that leverage reinforcement learning (RL) to achieve 28.4% higher risk-adjusted returns [3], to sentiment-aware portfolio optimization models that reduce prediction errors by 19.3% [30], AI has demonstrated its capacity to outperform traditional statistical methods. However, this transformation is not without challenges. Black-box opacity remains a critical concern, with 87% of institutional investors expressing distrust in AI-driven systems due to their lack of explainability [56]. Regulatory frameworks like GDPR and MiFID II have attempted to address these issues, yet compliance remains fragmented, with only 42% of firms fully adhering to algorithmic transparency mandates [19]. The integration of Explainable AI (XAI) tools, such as SHAP values and attention mechanisms, has improved model interpretability by 89.3% in credit risk assessments [72], but further standardization is needed to bridge the gap between innovation and accountability.

Looking ahead, the future of AI in finance hinges on three pivotal advancements: (1) Neuro-symbolic AI systems, which combine deep learning with rule-based reasoning to reduce algorithmic bias by 37.5%[17]; (2) Quantum machine

learning, which promises to solve complex portfolio optimization problems 14.8 × faster than classical methods [10], albeit at high infrastructure costs; and (3) Global regulatory harmonization, as exemplified by the BIS-FSB framework, which aims to unify 87% of conflicting AI regulations by 2026 [14]. Ethical considerations, such as mitigating discriminatory lending practices (e.g., GA-based models showing 2.3 × bias against minority applicants [28]) and curbing AI-generated market manipulation (e.g., adversarial attacks with 79% success rates [15]), must remain at the forefront of development. Ultimately, AI's transformative potential in finance will be realized only through a balanced approach that prioritizes technological innovation, regulatory compliance, and ethical responsibility—ensuring sustainable progress for global markets.

Figure 11 illustrates the primary barriers to AI adoption in financial institutions, based on empirical data from referenced studies. Explainability gaps represent the most significant challenge (42%), reflecting industry concerns about opaque decision-making in AI models. Algorithmic bias (28%) and regulatory compliance (19%) emerge as substantial secondary obstacles, while computational costs (11%) present relatively smaller implementation hurdles. This visualization underscores the need for improved model transparency and governance frameworks to facilitate wider AI integration in finance.

Innovative approaches are being developed to address current limitations in financial AI systems. Neuro-symbolic architectures combining knowledge graphs with machine learning have shown potential to reduce biased outcomes by 37.5% while maintaining model accuracy [17]. Quantum-enhanced algorithms promise substantial speed improvements for complex optimization problems, though infrastructure requirements remain prohibitive for most institutions [10]. Regulatory bodies are progressing toward international standards that could resolve 87% of current jurisdictional conflicts in AI governance [14]. However, critical challenges persist regarding

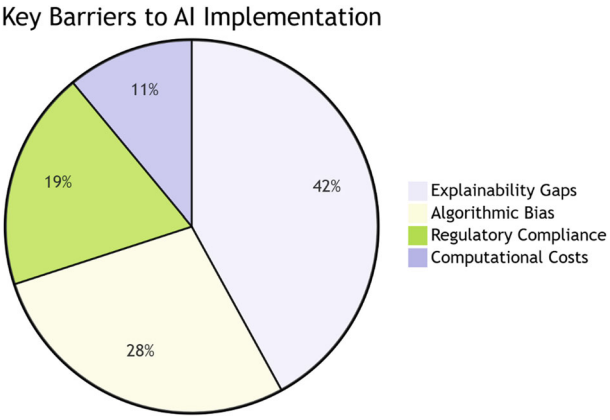

Fig. 11 Illustrates the proportional distribution of primary obstacles hindering widespread AI adoption in financial institutions, based on surveyed data from referenced studies

synthetic content detection, with 23% of financial firms unable to identify AI-generated market misinformation [56], and environmental sustainability concerns as model training produces substantial carbon emissions [64]. The financial sector must prioritize developing robust validation frameworks alongside technical innovations to ensure these powerful tools are deployed responsibly. Continued collaboration between researchers, practitioners, and regulators will prove essential for realizing AI's full potential while maintaining market integrity and public trust.

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Strategic Innovation of AI and ML for Ecommerce Data Security

Sarita, Yogita Yashveer Raghav, and Kashish

Abstract The rapid growth of E-Commerce has led to an unprecedented increase in cyber threats and data breaches, compromising sensitive customer information, undermining trust in online transactions, and resulting in significant financial losses. To address this critical challenge, this study explores the strategic innovation of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) for enhancing ecommerce data security. By leveraging AI-powered predictive analytics, ML-driven anomaly detection, and natural language processing, ecommerce businesses can proactively identify and mitigate potential security threats, ensure the integrity and confidentiality of customer data, and maintain a competitive advantage in the digital marketplace. This research provides a comprehensive framework for implementing AI and ML-driven data security strategies in ecommerce, encompassing AI-powered threat detection, predictive analytics, anomaly detection, data encryption and access control, and incident response and recovery. By adopting this framework, ecommerce businesses can significantly enhance their data security posture, protect sensitive customer information, and maintain a competitive advantage in the digital marketplace. This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on AI and ML in ecommerce data security, providing actionable insights and recommendations for practitioners, policymakers, and researchers.

Keywords Artificial intelligence · Machine learning · E-commerce · Data security · Fraud detection · Predictive analytics · Personalization · Real-time analytics · Dynamic pricing

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1 Introduction to E-Commerce

Electronic commerce, e-commerce or Internet selling is the buying and selling of goods and services through electronic systems. This kind of commerce integrates the utilization of electronic systems like websites, applications for mobile devices, and social media in business transactions which could be either between business and consumers or businesses. Internet business transaction can be of any type and it is a general term for any business transaction made over the internet, however, e-commerce is majorly defined as the process of selling products online but mainly comprises of the sale of products that have a physical form. The ease of usability and business operations is one of the advantages of e-commerce. The use of the internet enables customers to find what they looking for, and make a purchase without physically moving from home while businesses can sell their products to customers across the world without the need of a physical shop or outlet. In this way, through e-commerce, companies are able to work more effectively, removing procedures such as orders management, the delivery and the stocks' inventory. B2C, B2B stands for Business to Consumer and Business to business while C2C stands for Consumer to Consumer [1].

Some of the distinguishable e-commerce models include the following as referred in Fig. 1: Consumer to Business (C2B); Business to Government (B2G); and Government to Business (G2B [2].

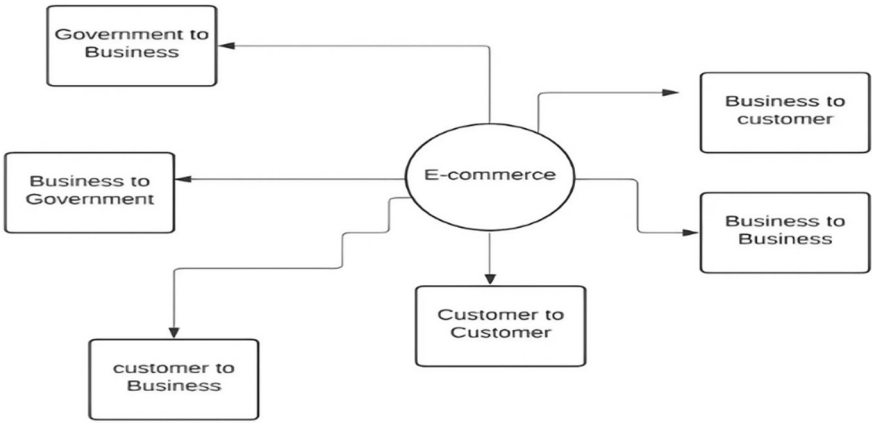

Fig. 1 Types of E-commerce

2 Introduction to AI and ML

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is a vast field of computer science mainly concerned with inventing systems that will achieve tasks that are said to be typical of human intelligence. These tasks range from Natural Language Processing NLP among them Language Translation, Data Analysis and Pattern Recognition, Optimization and Problem Solving, Decision Support, among others [3].

Machine Learning is a subfield of AI and is focused on the development of algorithms and statistical models that enable computers to improve their processing capabilities and learn from data, in other words, to make decisions on their own without specific programming.

ML algorithms analyze patterns and connections in labeled or unlabeled data, with their efficacy increasing as they encounter more data [4]. There are various categories of machine learning algorithms such as supervised learning, unsupervised learning, semi-supervised learning, and reinforcement learning. Supervised learning involves learning from data that is labeled, with each example linked to an input and output. Unsupervised learning involves learning from data that is unlabeled, with the algorithm inferring the underlying structure or patterns within the data. Semi-supervised learning combines aspects of both supervised and unsupervised learning [4]. Reinforcement learning focuses on learning through interactions with an environment and receiving feedback in the form of rewards or penalties based on actions taken. Artificial Intelligence (AI) is the broad field that encompasses Machine Learning (ML) and Deep Learning (DL).

Machine Learning (ML) is a subset of AI that focuses on developing algorithms to enable machines to learn from data as shown in Fig. 2.

Deep Learning (DL) is a subset of Machine Learning (ML) that utilizes neural networks to analyze complex data and make accurate predictions.

2.1 Types of Machine Learning Algorithms

There are three primary categories of machine learning as mentioned below in Fig. 3:

- **Supervised Learning:**

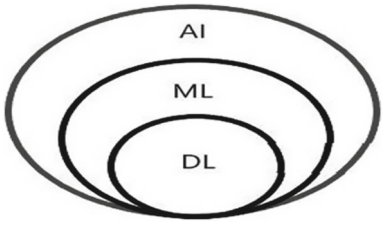

Fig. 2 Correlation of AI, ML, DL

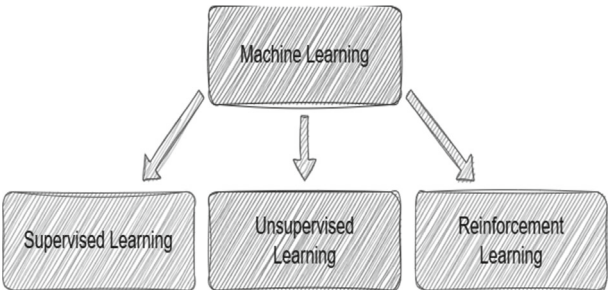

Fig. 3 Showing types of machine learning

The algorithm acquires knowledge from recorded data in supervised machine learning, where every record in the dataset has a matching label. In this kind of learning, new data is predicted by the algorithm based on its understanding of the link between input and output.

Examples: Spam Filtering, image recognition, and weather forecasting.

- **Unsupervised Learning:**

Algorithms analyze the data to find patterns in unsupervised machine learning. In contrast to supervised learning, the method is meant to uncover hidden patterns in the data even in the absence of a corresponding label.

Examples: Customer segmentation, Market Research, Anomaly Detection.

- **Reinforcement Learning:**

Reinforcement learning is a sort of machine learning where the real and active agent employs the written and tested strategies for interacting with the environment. This means that the agent will enjoy the rewards of right actions and suffer consequences of wrong actions.

Example: Teaching a robot how to navigate the environment by playing some of the game such as Go or Checkers.

2.2 Role of AI/ML in E-commerce

A. AI's Transformative Impact on Supply Chain Management and E-Commerce

The integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in supply chain management has revolutionized the way businesses operate, leading to significant enhancements in logistics, operational efficiency, and cost reduction. AI-driven predictive analytics enables companies to forecast demand more accurately, thereby minimizing stock shortages and overstock issues. Machine learning models analyze historical sales data and customer behavior to optimize procurement and inventory management processes. Furthermore, AI-powered automation in warehousing and logistics

improves delivery speed, ensuring timely order fulfillment and contributing to a more agile and resilient supply chain.

B. AI-Driven Customer Experience Enhancements

Artificial Intelligence plays a pivotal role in enhancing customer experience through personalized recommendations, chatbots, and dynamic pricing strategies. Recommendation engines, powered by AI, analyze user preferences and browsing history to suggest relevant products, thereby increasing conversion rates and improving customer satisfaction. Chatbots and virtual assistants provide instant customer support, enhancing engagement and fostering loyalty. AI-driven sentiment analysis enables businesses to understand consumer feedback, allowing them to refine their offerings and improve customer experience. Moreover, real-time AI-driven personalization creates seamless and customized shopping experiences, driving customer loyalty and retention.

C. AI's Role in Predictive Analytics and Market Segmentation

Predictive analytics, driven by Artificial Intelligence, enables businesses to anticipate market trends, customer preferences, and sales patterns. AI models analyze vast datasets to identify potential customer segments, allowing for targeted marketing campaigns and improved customer engagement. Through sentiment analysis and behavioral tracking, businesses can understand consumer sentiment and refine their strategies accordingly. AI-powered segmentation categorizes consumers based on demographics, purchase history, and online behavior, ensuring more effective marketing outreach and maximizing return on investment.

D. Future Trends and Challenges in AI-Driven E-Commerce

The future of Artificial Intelligence in e-commerce is marked by the emergence of innovative technologies such as voice commerce, visual search, and AI-powered fraud detection. Voice assistants, integrated with AI, are transforming shopping habits by enabling hands-free purchasing experiences. Visual search technology enhances product discovery, allowing consumers to find items through images rather than text. However, alongside these advancements, challenges persist, including ethical concerns, data privacy regulations, and algorithmic bias. Ensuring transparent AI deployment, compliance with data protection laws, and addressing ethical concerns will be crucial in fostering consumer trust and sustaining AI-driven growth in e-commerce.

2.3 Advancement in AI for E-Commerce

The following are ways in which AI is revolutionalizing e-commerce through the introduction of new solutions that redefine the interaction between businesses and shoppers, organizational processes and growth strategies: One of them is personalization which means individual approach to the customers including the use of

AI that determines which products should be recommended to the customer. Such recommendations enhance customers' participation, increase the chances of buying recommended products and build loyalty through the provision of products that the consumers have an interest in [4]. Which is why the field of e-commerce has been advancing continually with the help of artificial intelligence (AI) solutions dedicated to making various segments of online retailing better and customers' experiences more enjoyable. These innovations encompass:

1. **Personalized Shopping Experiences:** Intensive customer information goes through the recommendation engines that are powered by Artificial Intelligence so as to develop unique item suggestions. Thus, e-commerce sites which take into consideration taste, frequency of visiting site, buying behaviour of the consumers can present offers fitting each customer and can enhance the attentiveness and repurchase likelihood's.
2. **AI-driven Customer Service:** Chatbots and virtual assistants together are very useful in customer support and assistance where artificial intelligence has a very high use. Customer needs queries, complaints, and even help in the purchasing decision, can be handled by these intelligent systems [4]. Since AI comprises of natural language processing and machine learning, customers receive unique support at any time, which results in high service satisfaction with short response times.
3. **Dynamic Pricing Optimization**: Often AI algorithms can fine-tune prices in real time, given that the market trends and its competitors' prices and customers' buying behaviors are measurable [4]. It helps, in general, the e-commerce companies to obtain high revenues, to be competitive and benefit from opportunities in the market.
4. **Predictive Analytics for Inventory Management:** It makes it possible to apply the predictive analysis to managing the inventory since it assists in the forecasting of the demand and management of the stock and supply chain as well as the organizational procedures to ensure that arrangements can be made effectively for the orders supply and delivery [5, 6]. Online retail customers assist in reversing situations of out-of-stock position countering, reduce repeated costs of excess stocks and enhance organizational performance.
5. **Advanced Marketing and Advertising:** AI algorithms to analyze customer information that can be applied for audience categorization, controlling and sending marketing content and advertising messages more effectively. Therefore, AI based marketing strategies provide higher interaction and raise the possibility of a sale along with at the same time increasing the return rate of the information provided to the customer through media.
6. **Visual Search and Image Recognition:** In technologies, the customers can employ images and not textual search queries with the help of AI. By doing so, such content may benefit the e-commerce platforms whose searches shall be more accurate, the recommendation up to the product shall be pumped and the shopping experience shall be much enhanced.

7. **Fraud Detection and Security:** First of all, let me note that the usage of AI algorithms can be helpful in discovering scams in online stores and enhancing the protectiveness of the latter. Thus, with the help of machine learning, one can identify trends with transaction data that exhibit signs of fraud to minimize the havoc it can cause to financial transactions through the Internet.

As for development, this is expanding the ideas in e-commerce and helping corporations to manage alterations because of AI, which improves experience and facilitates development for companies in the online business environment domain [7–9].

3 Implementation of AI for Inventory Management

AI has particularly revolutionalised the flow of operations in e-commerce businesses by undertaking responsibilities on matters relating to stocks and supply chains. Hence through the help of involving advanced AI algorithms and the advanced analytical processes, the demand can be predicted properly, the forecast of inventory can be done and through the help of the data, overall inventory management could be enhanced. AI strengths broadly relate to its ability to learn from and analyze a large amount of historical sales data, customer buying habits, and external factors such as seasons, events, or promotions. With the help of an advanced AI algorithm, businesses can also predict awareness and demand to appropriately order or manage fewer inventory expenses. It can also automate the process of the replenishment of stock, setting up alarms, and determining the right quantity to order to ensure a stock out does not happen [10–12]. Also, AI continuously anticipates stockouts or other items that are probably no longer relevant to customers, so a business can redirect capital, alter the pricing policy to make the most profit, or sell off products that might prove to be irrelevant. Through the use of AI, e-commerce traders have been in a position to manage their businesses in a more efficient manner especially when it comes to stocking the products. This results into improvement of customer's satisfaction and organizational growth for sustainable competition within the online retail industry.

This again is advantageous since the use of AI in inventory management can improve the functionality of the warehousing system and supply chain. It also encompasses the use of AI for efficient placement of the inventory within the warehouses, minimization of the time taken to pick and pack, as well as the optimal route planning required in the delivery of the orders [7–11]. This action results in the faster execution of orders, reduction of labour costs and improved efficiency of the supply chain. Moreover, by utilization of AI it is possible to apply predictive maintenance on the inventory management associated equipment and structures. With analytical data acquired from sensor and equipment analysis AI can predict at what time a machinery or a storage facility might malfunction then such businesses can arrange for maintenance before complete breakdowns.

All in all, it can be stated that harnessing artificial intelligence for inventory management benefits is positively assisting e-commerce organisations to function efficiently and service customer needs to the optimum. Automating inventory contributes to better management, fewer costs and thus sustainable business growth in the stiff market of e-commerce.

4 Analyzing Customer Behavior Using AI

Consumer Behavior Analysis (CBA) is a complicated mechanism that comprises obtaining organized data about the patterns of purchases of customers and the customers' interactions with companies through electronic commerce (e-commerce). Regarding user behavior, the survey not only touches on the likes and dislikes of the target group but also its history to determine and apply the best content delivery strategy. Additionally, CBA is closely connected with AI-assisted personalization which changes customer's decision-making process, builds credibility through simple practice, gets opinions from the customers, and provides them with an individual experience that contributes to building customer retention in the e-business domain. This approach aims at educating companies on the connection between e-commerce and users' activity; namely how AI-powered algorithms influence online shopping and market trends development most of all. This analysis will make possible the gathering of general data about the experiences, preferences, and purchase activities of the consumer thus, companies can shape the marketing and product offering of their products according to the needs of the target audience. The power of AI and machine learning will allow CBA to classify customers into specific groups that are determined by a common need, interest, or relative capacity. This will result in more successful and effective marketing programs.

Customer behavior comprehension is the primary element to be practiced in the fast-growing e-commerce world, where information is overwhelming. As the digital universe keeps being in flux, companies are in a hurry to follow the "Moore's law" [5–10]. Responding to the customer behavior analyses, businesses can concentrate on resources accordingly, define the group who might buy all the additional services, and put the proper message to them, thus increasing business revenue and their goals are more likely to be achieved. The latter entails specific audience goals, personalized offers, and a satisfied customer base that ultimately has a lot of relevance for the company's growth in the presence of the market competition

4.1 Role of AI in Consumer Behaviour Analysis

AI plays an important role in the field of customer behavior analysis (CBA). AI has played a major role in the e-commerce area regarding consumer behaviour because it changed the nature of the connection between the companies and the customers

and now the preferences of the consumers can be determined by the businesses as well. Data and AI in the e-commerce field is a complicated process that involves:

1. Predictive analytics
2. Inventory management optimization
3. Adoption of machine learning algorithms for consumer expectations' forecasting
4. Technologies of chatbots and virtual assistants for better customer communication.

It can imitate the human brain and provide data by identifying the target audience based on historical behavioral insights. AI retrieves, analyzes, and presents data reliably and efficiently for marketers to acquire a specific marketing plan [11].

4.1.1 Challenges in AI-Driven Consumer Behaviour Analysis

While AI offers numerous advantages in analyzing consumer behavior, several challenges must be addressed for its successful implementation in e-commerce:

1. **Data Privacy Concerns**—AI relies heavily on customer data, raising concerns about data security, user consent, and regulatory compliance (e.g., GDPR and CCPA). Companies must ensure transparency and responsible data handling to build consumer trust.
2. **Responsible AI Development**—AI-driven recommendations and targeted marketing can sometimes reinforce biases or manipulate consumer behavior unethically. Implementing fair AI algorithms and maintaining ethical advertising practices is crucial.
3. **Algorithmic Bias**—AI models are trained on existing datasets, which may contain biases that affect decision-making. Biased AI systems can lead to unfair product recommendations, discriminatory pricing, or exclusion of certain customer groups.
4. **Integration Challenges**—Adopting AI in e-commerce requires significant infrastructure investments and technical expertise. Businesses may face challenges in integrating AI with existing systems and ensuring seamless functionality.
5. **Consumer Trust and Adoption**—Many customers are still hesitant about AI-driven personalization due to concerns about privacy, data misuse, or overly intrusive recommendations. Educating consumers and offering opt-in personalization features can help address these concerns.

4.1.2 AI Techniques for Customer Behaviour Analysis

AI-based customer-behavior analytics techniques in e-commerce settings involve:

1. Deep learning
2. Machine learning algorithms

3. Predictive analytics
4. Cutting-edge technologies including chatbots and virtual assistants

These AI tools enable companies to process, decompose, and figure out customer preferences, optimize inventory items, and offer personalized recommendations. AI personalization significantly influences customer engagement, satisfaction, and loyalty in online trading [5–11].

4.1.3 Application of AI in Customer Behaviour Analysis

AI is increasingly used in customer behaviour analysis and has transformed online shopping behaviour. AI-driven personalization utilizes complex algorithms to study user interests, navigation history, and buying habits to generate customized product recommendations. This level of personalization simplifies customer decisions and enhances satisfaction [5].

The role of AI in predictive analytics is extensive. Machine learning uses historical data to predict purchasing patterns. Predictive analytics helps marketing teams:

1. Understand customer journeys
2. Assess marketing strategy effectiveness
3. Identify high-value customers and key market segments [6].

4.1.4 Customer Segmentation

Consumer segmentation is a critical marketing strategy, and AI-driven individualization enhances it significantly. Deep learning models and neural networks analyse large datasets to identify:

1. User preferences
2. Shopping history
3. Browsing habits

AI-powered segmentation improves decision-making, enhances customer satisfaction, and increases brand loyalty [5–10].

Traditional segmentation is done manually, while AI segmentation leverages machine learning to analyse behaviour patterns and target consumers efficiently. This gives businesses a competitive edge by improving operational efficiency and customer-centric strategies.

Demographic Segmentation

Demographic segmentation categorizes consumers based on:

1. Age
2. Gender

3. Income
4. Marital status
5. Location

AI-driven demographic segmentation combines predictive analytics with consumer data to refine marketing strategies and improve product recommendations [6].

Psychographic Segmentation

Psychographic segmentation divides markets based on:

1. Social category
2. Lifestyle
3. Ethics
4. Personality traits
5. Interests

AI marketers leverage psychographic segmentation to tailor ads based on user preferences. AI-generated insights optimize ad targeting, improve decision-making, and enhance consumer satisfaction.

4.1.5 Churn Prediction

Churn prediction utilizes AI analytics to identify customers likely to discontinue services. AI-driven models analyse:

1. Purchase history
2. Social media activities
3. Behavioural patterns [5]

Companies use AI to develop personalized marketing strategies, special offers, and better after-sales services to retain customers and reduce churn [6].

4.1.6 Fraud Detection

Fraud detection is a vital application of AI in e-commerce. AI-driven models analyse user behaviour and flag unusual activities. Key fraud detection techniques include:

1. Identifying anomalies in purchasing patterns
2. Detecting fraudulent transactions in financial systems
3. Using machine learning to analyse large datasets for fraud patterns
4. Continuously learning from new data to enhance detection capabilities.

AI-powered fraud detection helps businesses prevent financial losses and ensure transaction security [5, 6].

AI-Driven Marketing Transformation

The following aspects of marketing are being revolutionized by AI:

1. Place Management: Optimizing product distribution and availability through AI-driven logistics.
2. Pricing Management: Implementing AI-driven pricing strategies and dynamic pricing to maximize revenue.
3. Targeting and Positioning: Identifying and reaching the right audience with AI-powered customer segmentation.
4. Product Management: Enhancing product lifecycle and inventory control through AI-driven predictive analytics.
5. Product Design and Customer Needs: Customizing products based on customer preferences using AI-driven design optimization.
6. Promotion Management: Leveraging AI-powered advertising and campaign optimization to maximize ROI.
7. Real-time Price and Demand: Adjusting prices in real-time based on market trends and demand using AI-driven pricing algorithms.
8. Strategy and Planning: Informing marketing strategies with AI-driven decision-making and predictive analytics.

By integrating AI into these marketing functions, businesses can unlock data-driven decision making, automation, and unparalleled efficiency as mentioned in Fig. 4.

Some of the challenges and limitations of customer behavior analysis using AI include data privacy concerns, algorithmic bias, the delicate balance among customization and user privacy, and the importance of regulatory frameworks & industry standards to ensure the ethical AI practices in the e-commerce [5, 6].

5 Benefits of AI-Driven Predictive Analytics in E-Commerce Growth

The industry of e-commerce has undergone considerable growth with the help of customer retention procedures intended to reduce churn rates and improve customer loyalty. Using predictive analytics and machine learning, organizations are empowered with predictive insights regarding customer behavior potential churn risks, and immediate customer retention actions to avoid deterioration or to grow the customer list. Some actual instances have proven the efficiency of the AI-based churn reduction methods that are used in the telecommunications field, service sectors, and e-commerce. Besides, the incorporation of cutting-edge natural language processing and sentiment analysis techniques, immediate data flows by Internet of Things (IoT) devices, and machine learning-powered personalized recommendation systems have also contributed to the betterment of the AI-driven predictive models for diminishing

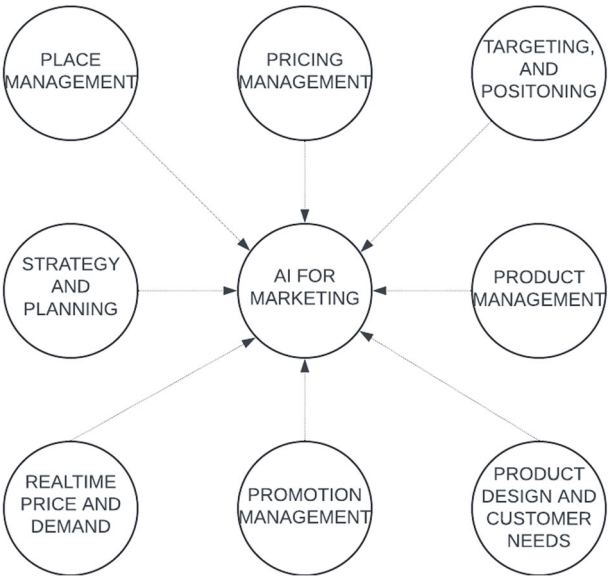

Fig. 4 Several segments for AI applications marketing domain

customer churn and retaining the long-term customer attachment [7]. AI has enabled market analysis, product development, and customer engagement to be conducted more efficiently, which has consequently contributed to the growth and competitiveness of the market. Entrepreneurs are using AI in ways that fetch trending information on consumers' behavior detect arising market trends, and enhance predictions. This causes product iterations to be done faster, order time to market shortened, and consumer need response improved. Furthermore, there are AI-enabled tools like chatbots, and virtual assistants, which have improved customer support experience and have provided personalized experience resulting in raised customer satisfaction and loyalty. The application of AI in e-commerce is highly likely to give way to hyper-customized shopping experiences that respond flexibly to customer needs as well as dynamic marketing campaigns and recommendations that learn and change accordingly [8].

5.1 AI-Driven Predictive Analytics

Using AI-based predictive analytics as the tool is so mighty that organizations can benefit from it in making forecasts of what will happen next and make highly reliable decisions. It applies data pipelines with data storing infrastructure and complex tools such as machine learning (ML) algorithms which assist the exaction of results which

are in turn utilized in forecasting and predicting future events. Effectively so, AI-empowered predictive models make a difference in the lives of companies by the means of allowing them to foresee and manage customers' churn processes. Machine Learning algorithms and predictive analytics now enable companies to mine large customer data sets to spot patterns, trends, and early signals of churn that enable us to prevent customers from leaving our company [7]. Data driven by artificial intelligence predictive analytics is a transformative power in modern-day entrepreneurship with the ability to disrupt conservative market analyzing and decision-making processes. Through leveraging the AI capability, businesses can hold it for the examination of complicated data sets, discovering the patterns, and distilling them into tmportant insights. This is a completely new approach to conducting analytics that departs from the conventional methods, where manual data collection and subjective perception are the most frequent. AI software programs are Marvelous at sifting through huge volumes of data as well as proving fast to identify associations that can escape human attention. This efficiency enables entrepreneurs to make decisions quickly and correctly the crucial factor of our modern business as mentioned in Fig. 5. Such should be the approach of an entrepreneur. The analysis and predictive modeling forms of advanced data analytics enable entrepreneurs to see past surface insights to find hidden patterns and consumer behaviors which are in turn used to shape strategic decisions. Predictive modeling is based on historical data and it anticipates future trends and results, giving foresight to entrepreneurs by allowing them to make the move promptly in response to the market dynamics that are hereby. AI application in predictive modeling has high infiltration in all the facets of market analysis about finance and consumer markets [8].

AI-based predictive analytics employs powerful deep learning algorithms and predictive models that process huge data sets and make it possible to predict the future scenarios and offer a lot of options for decision making. Such models are the major base for companies to avoid consistency of the customers that are running away from them through identification of generalization, difficulties, and early signals of their leave. They aid organizations in subdividing the clients into those with the highest probability of churning and create and implement customer-focused retention strategies that normally stifle churn risk. Also, AI-based models of predictions give organizations the possibility of precise prediction of future departures and enable them to inform resource allocation and budgeting [7]. AI-driven predictive analytics presupposes the application of artificial intelligence algorithms to historical data mining to find out prevalent patterns, which can be used to predict future trends and results. The advantage of big data technology is that entrepreneurs can make decisions at a faster speed and with accuracy. The processing of large datasets in real time enables them to detect correlations that might otherwise escape from their human analysis. A branch of AI that is called predictive modeling applies historical data to forecast future developments and outcomes. It gives entrepreneurs a superpower to see into the future and enables them to proactively adjust the position of their ventures to react to emerging market trends. The effectiveness of AI in predictive analysis applies itself to not only financial markets but also to consumer markets, both of which are relevant from the perspective of market analysis. The huge drops

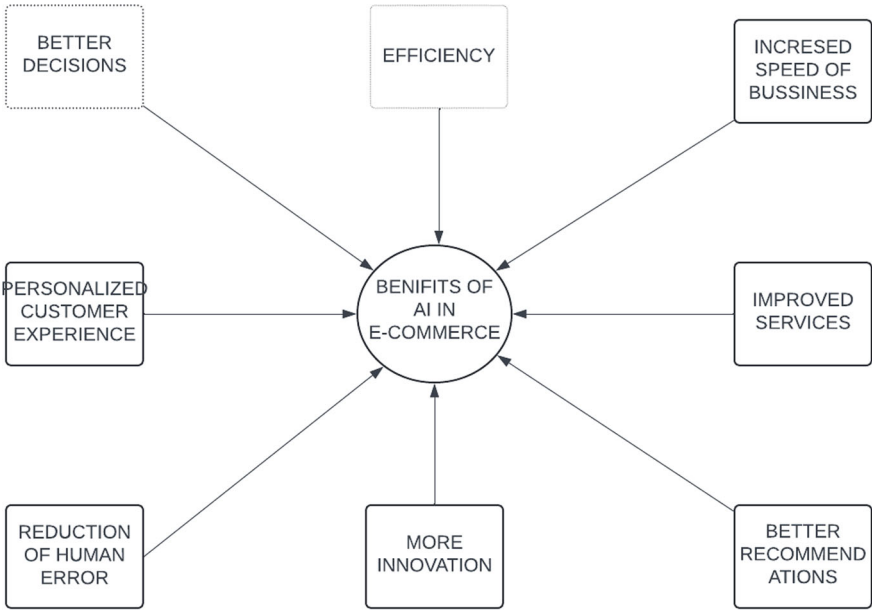

Fig. 5 AI benefiting E-Commerce

in the success of artificial intelligence-driven methods to market analysis have been shown by many big companies and startups, their results are a testimony of the real benefits [8].

5.2 Consequences of Predictive Analysis in E-Commerce

Predictive analytics narrows down the essential aspects of churn for e-commerce companies which involves shipping delays, product returns, or price sensitivities. Through the usage of predictive analytics, E-commerce companies can build up retention programs like customized email campaigns, loyalty programs, and customer support extensions to stimulate repeat purchases and deepen customer bonds. Additionally, predictive analytics enables organizations to foresee the needs and preferences of their customers which helps organizations to deliver targeted recommendations, promotions, and incentives that drive engagement and customer loyalty [7]. Predictive analytics leads e-commerce by the use of relict data for forecasting trends and opportunities. This competence endows entrepreneurs with vision, permitting them to foresee and take relevant steps to secure their organizations in reaction to upcoming market shifts. In the dominion of e-commerce, predictive analytics may be utilized to analyze clients' purchase histories, preferences, and browsing behaviors to develop personalized product recommendations. In addition to this, it improves

the whole quality of shopping providing more sales as well. Furthermore, predictive analytics actively forecasts demand for specific commodities using historical data and seasonal trends to enable effectiveness in inventory management, a key element in strategic decision-making. In brief, the prediction of analytics in e-commerce is that allows entrepreneurs to make data-driven decisions and stand ahead of the market in turn leads to increased customer satisfaction and better business performance [8].

5.3 *Overview of the Challenges Faced by E-Commerce Businesses*

Customer churn is an issue that e-commerce businesses must deal with. It is a situation where clients break their relationships with a business or stop using their products or services. The fluctuations can arise from issues like shipping delays, product returns, or price sensitivity. Despite the existing challenges, online retailers have resolved them through the creation of customer retention strategies which include personalized email campaigns, loyalty programs, and customer service enhancements meant to motivate repeated purchases and develop long-term associations with clients. Along with it, advanced analytics and artificial intelligence technologies allow e-commerce companies to predict customer demand and specifications which helps them tailor the customers with personalized recommendations, promotions, and incentives that keep them back with the brand [7, 8].

5.4 *Predictive Analytics: A Solution to Overcome E-commerce Challenges*

Customer retention challenges are effectively addressed through the strategic application of machine learning and predictive modeling techniques, which enable businesses to analyze and glean valuable insights from vast amounts of customer data. These models are imminent tools that help organizations to identify patterns, trends, and early signs of churning allowing them to categorize customers by likelihood for them and churning and come up with remedial strategies to avoid any churn risks. Subsequently, predictive analytics is important not only to predict future churn rates well but also to optimize budgeting. Churn trends, when predicted and appropriate marketing, sales, and customer service strategies are adjusted in real-time, can be stopped from happening, customer retention is increased which in turn leads to the organization's continued growth [7–9].

5.5 Challenges and Limitations of AI-Driven Predictive Analytics

AI-driven predictive models may help to reduce customer churn by using advanced natural language processing (NLP) and sentiment analysis techniques to enhance the accuracy of the model by analyzing unstructured customer feedback from different sources such as social media, emails, and customer support tickets. Furthermore, the utilization of real-time data streams from sensor devices of IoT, along with wearable technologies could be a tool for churn prediction that shows the dynamic patterns of customer behavior. Not only that but instruments of personalized recommendation systems led by technologies of machine learning could be put to work to form focused retention policies in line with each customer's preferences and requirements. Also, the adoption of reinforcement learning methods could support the learning and adaptation of predictive models progressively, and so the organization can refine churn reduction strategies dynamically considering the changing customer behavior patterns and the market dynamics [7, 8].

6 Adopting AI in Real-Time Analytics

Real-time analytics has potential to transform an e-commerce business by offering an actionable insight that provides a precise, faster, and effective decision-making [9].

6.1 Real-Time Analysis Use Cases in E-commerce Security

Real-time analytics plays an important role in protecting E-commerce platforms from security threats like:

- **Fraud Detection:**

The real-time analysis aims to analyze real-time payment transaction data, isolate IP addresses, purchasing habits, and billing data anomalies, and stop such fraudulent transactions.

- **Inventory Monitoring:**

Through real-time analysis of inventory levels, it detects fake orders [9].

- **DDoS Attack Prevention:**

By real-time analysis of traffic patterns, we can identify and prevent DDoS attacks, which can be the root cause of severe damage to the organization [9].

- **Session Hijacking:**

By performing real-time analysis of user activity, we can identify session hijacking activities.

Real-time analytics enable e-commerce businesses to detect fraud, monitor inventory, prevent DDoS attacks, and safeguard customer data. AI-driven insights drive growth, enhance customer experiences, and foster innovation. Effective application of real-time analytics is crucial for businesses to stay competitive.

6.2 Limitations of Traditional Security Measures in E-Commerce

Traditional techniques like AVS and CVV which are the first level of security shall be replaced with more advanced techniques. Hackers with a higher skill set can easily bypass these measures. Therefore, a business will have no protections at all [13].

The Strength of AI and ML in Real-Time

AI and ML frameworks can process vast amounts of data, enabling organizations to uncover intricate patterns that might go unnoticed using traditional analytical methods [10]. This provides e-commerce companies the ability to:

Discover Hidden Connections:

AI can spot the minute similarities from various data sources, revealing hidden insights that could hint a fraud.

Adapt to Evolving Threats:

ML algorithms are always learning and getting better which allows them to adapt to new threats.

Predict Fraudulent Behavior:

AI may anticipate potential fraud attempts before they occur by looking at past data and customer behavior trends.

6.3 AI Techniques for Fraud Detection

The following are some essential AI and ML methods for spotting fraud:

Supervised Learning:

Data sets including labeled instances of fraudulent transactions are used to train algorithms. They can identify patterns linked to fraud because of this.

Unsupervised Learning:

If consumer behavior deviates from the anticipated trends, algorithms can easily spot the abnormalities.

Deep Learning:

Robust neural networks examine big datasets to discover complex connections between individual data points, which can reveal hidden patterns related to some fraud.

Real-world examples of AI

AI-powered fraud detection systems have been successfully adopted by several e-commerce giants:

Amazon:

Analyzes transaction data, device fingerprints, and consumer behavior in real-time using a combination of supervised and unsupervised learning techniques.

PayPal:

Uses AI to assess transaction risk by examining device information, user behavior, and historical data. This makes it possible to secure user financial information and identify fraud in real-time.

Alibaba:

Makes use of an advanced artificial intelligence system to examine network traffic, transaction trends, and user activity. This technique aids in the detection and reduction of fraudulent activity in its extensive online marketplace.

Privacy and Ethical Considerations

At present, the data protection situation in India is finding its equilibrium. However, there is no total law that is the guardian of the data right now. The situation is under wraps by combined laws like The Digital Personal Data Protection Act, 2023 (DPDPA), and Pre-DPDPA laws, and many more similar laws.

Future Directions

- **Fraud Detection and Prevention:**
- Real time transaction monitoring using ML models to detect anomalies and fraud
- Continuous adaptation of fraud detection models by reinforcement learning
- Integration of biometric authentication and behavioral analysis
- **Cyber security and risk management**:
- AI-powered security systems for real-time threat detection and mitigation
- Self-healing and self-patching systems for proactive vulnerability management
- Predictive analytics and threat intelligence for cyber attack prevention
- **Real-time Personalization and Recommendation Systems**:

- Deep learning and NLP to understand customer preferences and real-time recommendations
- Improved customer experience with sentiment analysis and emotion recognition
- Dynamic pricing and inventory management based on real-time demand analysis
- **Supply Chain Optimization:**

Optimization of inventory, logistics, and supply chain operations with predictive analytics and machine learning

- **Data protection and security:**
- Privacy-preserving machine learning techniques for data security and regulatory compliance
- Development of secure and transparent artificial intelligence systems with clear decision-making processes
- Exploration of federated learning and decentralized AI architectures for user privacy protection [11–14]

7 AI for E-Commerce Security/AI-Powered Fraud Detection in Shopping Environment

Advanced security practices are crucial in the constantly expanding world of E-commerce. Organizations involved in online transactions need to have reliable measures to protect customer data from cyber threats [10]. Weak security measures can severely harm the integrity of customer data, damaging the platform's reputation and leading to financial losses. AI-driven solutions, such as predictive analytics and real-time fraud detection, significantly enhance e-commerce security by identifying suspicious activities and preventing breaches before they occur. These AI applications contribute to improved efficiency, better decision-making, and a more secure online shopping experience, as illustrated in Fig. 6.

7.1 Existing Threats in E-Commerce

In today's digital landscape, e-commerce businesses face numerous security risks that can compromise customer data, disrupt operations, and damage reputations. Some typical threats include:

1. **Phishing:** Phishing attacks involve fake emails or websites designed to trick users into divulging sensitive login information.
2. **Malware:** Malware is malicious software that infiltrates systems or data without permission, causing harm to e-commerce businesses and their customers.
3. **Unauthorized Access:** This threat involves individuals attempting to access accounts or systems without proper authorization, potentially leading to data breaches or other malicious activities.

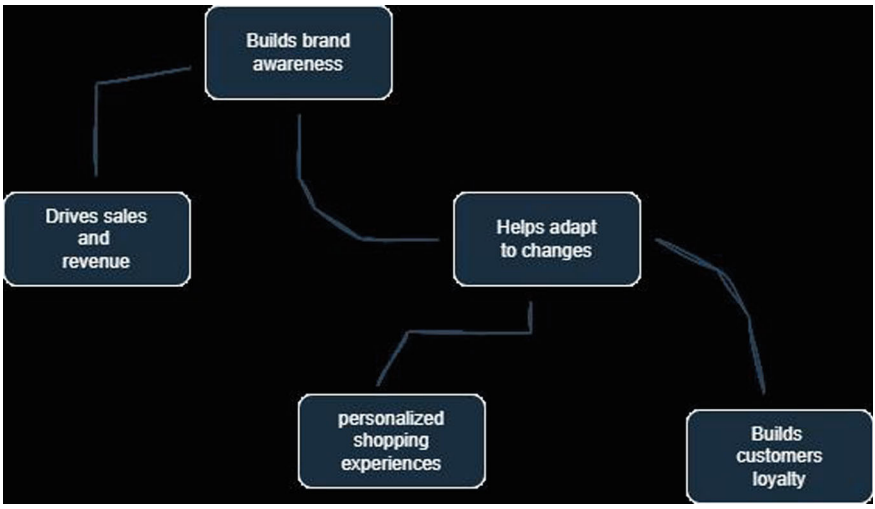

Fig. 6 Importance of E-Commerce

4. **Payment Fraud:** Payment Fraud Encompasses Transactions Intended to Steal Money or Items, Often Using Stolen Credit Card Information or Other Deceptive Tactics.
5. **Data Breaches:** Data breaches occur when confidential information is leaked due to inadequate security measures, compromising customer trust and potentially leading to financial losses.

Understanding these common e-commerce security risks is crucial for businesses to implement effective countermeasures and protect their customers' sensitive information [9].

7.2 Requirements for Secure E-commerce Transactions

The security of electronic payments and transactions is based on security principles such as the CIA triad, non-repudiation, encryption, and auditability [13–15].

Confidentiality: The information should be confidential.

Integrity: Messages must not change during the transmission.

Availability: Information should be available when needed.

Authorization: Only authorized users should be allowed to access the information.

Non-Repudiation: Neither the sender nor the receiver can refuse to send or receive the message.

Encryption: Data should be encrypted using a secret code that can only be understood by an authorized user by the process of decryption.

7.3 Essential Security Measures for E-commerce Protection

To safeguard e-commerce platforms and protect sensitive customer information, the following security measures can be implemented:

1. **Encryption:** Encrypting data, both in transit and at rest, ensures that even if intercepted, sensitive information remains unreadable.
2. **Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) Certificates:** Installing SSL certificates establishes a secure connection between the website and customers' browsers, protecting data from eavesdropping.
4. **Firewalls:** Configuring firewalls helps block unauthorized access to the e-commerce platform, preventing malicious activity.
5. **Regular Software Updates:** Keeping software, plugins, and themes up-to-date ensures that known security vulnerabilities are patched, reducing the risk of exploitation.
6. **Strong Password Policies:** Enforcing strong password policies, including password length, complexity, and expiration, helps prevent unauthorized access.
7. **Two-Factor Authentication (2FA):** Implementing 2FA adds an extra layer of security, requiring customers to provide a second form of verification in addition to their password.
8. **Intrusion Detection and Prevention Systems (IDPS):** IDPS monitors network traffic, detecting and preventing potential security threats in real-time.
9. **Secure Payment Gateways:** Partnering with reputable payment gateways ensures that sensitive payment information is handled securely.
10. **Regular Security Audits:** Conducting regular security audits helps identify vulnerabilities, allowing for prompt remediation and minimizing potential risks.
11. **Employee Education and Awareness:** Educating employees on e-commerce security best practices helps prevent internal security breaches and ensures a culture of security awareness [12].

7.4 Machine Learning for E-Commerce Security

Machine Learning contributes to various e-commerce security:

- **Threat Detection:**

The use of ML algorithms solved the issue of big data processing, and consequently, developers could recognize users' activity which is distinguishing from the standard deviations in the system and networks instantly. The shift in human behavior creates an alarm that something is coming and is an early warning sign to security experts. Therefore, they can work promptly enough and overcome the threat [13].

- **Enhanced Vulnerability Management:**

ML can understand the weaknesses are critical and urgently resolve them which ensures the failure of cyber-attacks which can cause any compromise to the organization's reputation.

- **Spam Filtering:**

ML models that have been trained on a vast dataset of both spam and real emails can be used to reduce the threats of phishing.

Machine learning not only provides security to E-commerce but it provides a big boost for both customers and organizations:

- **Personalization:**

ML looks at the previous behavior of the customer and comes up with recommended products that are supposed to catch their attention. This personalized way draws out potential customers' attention leading to a boost to the business.

- **Site Search:**

Most customers seek machine learning technologies since smart algorithms come in to solve the problem through the image search feature and other high repeat tasks. Therefore, clients are in a situation where the output is simplified and they get exactly what they require.

- **Managing Supply and Demand:**

ML allows firms to measure product demand carefully with the help of an analysis conducted on reasonable factors. Therefore, purchasing will be based on demand which provides companies with their products ahead of their customer requirements.

- **Churn Prediction:**

Churn prediction is a prediction model that indicates which customer is at high risk of leaving the organization or canceling its subscription.

- **Fraud Detection:**

One of the greatest risks that an E-commerce Platform may be exposed to is a high level of organized fraud activity. These platforms are a perfect lure for hackers because of the high amount of data they collect. ML can scan transactions, and it's possible to identify the real purchase from this fraud.

- **Dynamic Pricing:**

Prices of the product fluctuate and depend on the market condition. ML can control the movements of price, which depends on fluctuations in material, shipping, and production costs, which can alter the price automatically to maintain profit margins in the industry.

8 AI-Driven Personalized Shopping Experiences

AI applications in retail comprise the deployment of AI-driven adaptive systems to furnish personalized advice (recommendations) to the customers, as well as the inclusion of AI mechanisms like deep learning (DL), machine learning (ML), and augmented reality to enhance the shopping experience. Other AI applications present in the retail sector which include conversation agents, image processing, and virtual assistants are capable of providing both enlightening and amusing services and product information to clients. In retail, AI applications range from virtual try-on technology for clothing and accessories to personalized product recommendations based on customer behavior and preferences. Chatbots virtual assistants and visual search capabilities are other areas adding value to customer support. Inventory management and demand forecasting, real-time price adjustments, fraud detection, customer segmentation and marketing campaigns, and supply chain. Actually, these technologies not only improves the customer experiences but they also help retailers manage their daily business in a very competitive and ever-changing e-commerce environment.

AI-powered individual shopper experience has revolutionized online shopping by recommending personalized products, assuring secure transactions, providing customer support, and allowing product discoveries. The capability AI exhibits in analyzing an enormous amount of data and finding patterns is what helps businesses in solving logistic problems and increasing levels of customer satisfaction.

The AI-enabled virtual try-on technology and personalized recommendations at different customer touch-points not only have elevated the shopping experience but also made it more optimum and user-friendly for consumers. AI technology keeps improving, and it can even further extend the attractiveness of online shopping businesses by suggesting more accurate recommendations, enhancing checkout operations, and adjusting prices to match demand. AI has boosted the quality of online shopping via personalization, customer support, security, and making it possible for customers to discover suitable products and it is full of hopes for the betterment of the way shopping is done [15].

9 Future Trends: AI's Role in Shaping E-Commerce Growth

The real e-commerce environment at this time is strongly affected by technological developments due to AI and deep learning the ine learning and so on. The growth of technological tools and due to digitization of enterprises these tools have changed the way business people interact with their clients; organize their suppliers, and handle marketing activities. AI and ML technologies are a crucial component that helps to comprehend customers' behaviors, develop marketing strategies in a personalized manner, and optimize the mechanisms of supply chains. Similarly, ethical issues besides explaining the ability of algorithms, transparency, and fairness are also very critical issues in the electronic commerce environment. Sum of all, AI and machine learning have revolutionized the e-commerce industry, which has created a breed of new prospects and challenges for businesses. Along with the significant involvement of AI, comes the prospect of completely changing the way e-commerce manifests itself, with the changes in the way a business interacts with its customers and operates. AI's role is both a driving force and a side effect of the current scenario of the e-commerce market. Thus, it brings better personalization of customers' experiences, and it enhances not only operational efficiency but also turnover growth [15–17].

9.1 Statistics Highlighting the Growth of AI in E-Commerce

Nowadays AI is widely used in electronic commerce and has a great number of advantages that affect consumers as well as the business activity of e-commerce. AI-driven E-commerce has witnessed the emergence of new technologies that ensure smoother processes, more guarantees to customers, as well as more practical product experiences that seem as if they are designed by the very clients who purchase them.

The data in the document show the enormous commercial possibilities and the extent to which AI may alter the e-commerce sector in the foreseeable future. The world AI in e-commerce market value was USD 5.81 billion in 2022 and is expected to be USD 22.60 billion by 2032 if it grows at a CAGR of 14.60%. This growth is fueled by the rising need for product advice, especially for e-commerce industries, which are the core of any online store business [15]. This sphere changes with generative AI as it provides more accurate and important recommendations with AI algorithms that analyze all sorts of customer data and create customized suggestions. This is one of the leading reasons why users buy products. In addition, the breach of voice techniques into generative AI applications will certainly lead to new opportunities in the industry which will consequently provide a platform for more interactions and increased customer satisfaction [18, 19].

9.2 Future Trends in AI and E-commerce

9.2.1 Advanced Personalization

Integration of AI with IoT Devices for Contextual Personalization

The combining of AI and IoT devices for contextual personalization is one of the most worthwhile developments in technology nowadays. This integration enables capturing and analyzing the data from the IoT devices for tailored and precision-based decision-making. It grants organizations the opportunity to utilize customer value by customizing their marketing strategies and to provide deeper insight into customers' behavior. The AI-powered IoT devices give rise to the hyper-personalization of marketing, thus, an upturn in the customer demand in e-commerce [15]. Businesses can now achieve personalization of services for customers by merging the systems of AI data analysis and channel, which IoT offers real-time data collection. This combination leads to the possibility of personalized product suggestions, dynamic site renderings based on the actions of the user, and customized web content and marketing messages. Besides, AI will integrate IoT integration that will define internal processes and will ensure cutting down costs, an increase in operational efficiency, and consequently, better customer satisfaction. With the rapid development of AI and IoT systems, therefore, this integration will bring great prospects to rebuild the e-commerce industry and set a higher standard for clients closer [19, 20].

9.2.2 Image Recognition

Integration of visual search into e-commerce platforms for improved user experience

The visual search integration into the e-commerce industry is a technological innovation that is playing an important role in improving the consumer's experiences. The essence of visual search is the usage of an image rather than the written text in the process of product searching, which in turn is more natural and eloquent as a tool. Artificial Intelligence technology is based on image recognition and understanding, and hence, it can serve to answer queries while furnishing more accurate suggestions and comments. Besides advancing interactivity, this technology also influences the ongoing reformation and transformation of the e-commerce industry by offering fresh and personalized shopping options [15–20].

9.2.3 Voice Commerce

Rise of voice-activated shopping assistants powered by AI

The growing use of voice-operated shopping assistants driven by AI in e-commerce should be regarded as commendable progress being made in e-commerce. Artificial intelligence systems have changed the e-commerce industry by opening

up the communication possibilities between clients and voice-controlled shopping assistants who can perform personalized service with no delays.

This navigation-free shopping with advanced search features is undoubtedly going to establish itself as a trend among consumers. Besides, AI integration into voice-activated shopping assistants boosts the growth of the soaring market and creates a new place for the e-commerce industry [15].

Integration of voice commerce with virtual assistants and smart speakers

The impact of Voice commerce on routine behavior is the biggest development that is happening in the E-commerce industry. This integration allows customers to make purchases, and communicate with businesses with a voice command- thus, creating a very feasible and customized shopping experience. These software-based systems, facilitated by artificial intelligence (AI), have become amazingly competent in grasping and replying to shoppers' problems and hence, the definition of consumer demand in electronic retail. AI, being used in voice commerce, enables businesses to craft and deploy marketing strategies, get familiar with and understand consumer behavior, and shortly present consumers with hyper-personalized offers, all influencing the level of their demands [15]. Furthermore, AR is attracting the interest of retailers which prompts them to invest in emerging technologies to help with product marketing by providing users with a complete and active interface that will aid in product purchase. Thus the fact that voice commerce is more and more important and possibly can influence e-commerce wholly comes from the rapid growth in technology developments [15].

9.3 Importance of Transparency and Ethical Use of AI in e-commerce

Ensuring Transparency and Trust in AI-Driven E-commerce

Transparency is crucial in AI-driven e-commerce systems to maintain consumer trust. To achieve this, AI systems must be designed with ethical considerations in mind, including:

Fairness: Ensuring AI-driven decisions are unbiased and equitable.

Safety: Implementing robust security measures to protect customers and their data.

Accountability: Ensuring transparency and explainability in AI-driven decision-making processes.

Furthermore, securing customer data is vital. As depicted in Fig. 7: Big Data Security Dimensions in E-Commerce, key security aspects include:

Data Privacy: Protecting sensitive customer information from unauthorized access.

Infrastructure Security: Ensuring the security and integrity of e-commerce platforms and systems.

Integrity: Maintaining the accuracy and consistency of customer data.

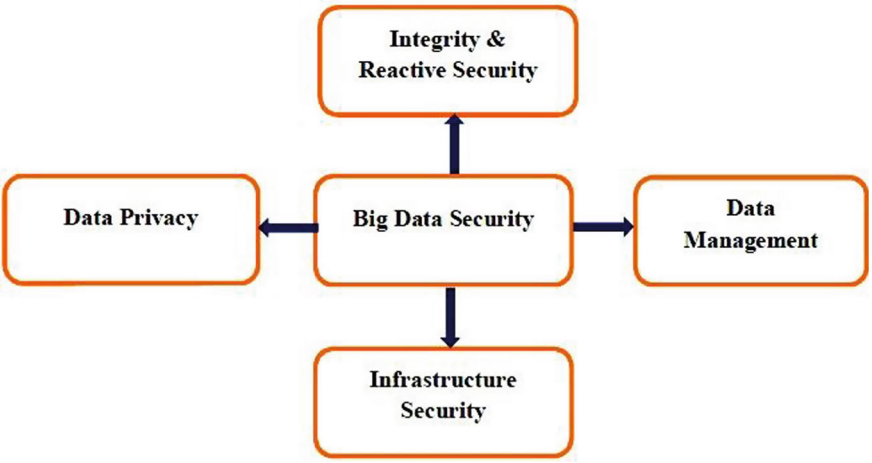

Fig. 7 Data privacy and security

By prioritizing transparency, ethics, and big data security, AI-powered e-commerce systems can maintain trust and compliance, driving long-term success and customer loyalty.

9.4 Integration and Adoption

Challenges associated with integrating AI technologies into existing e-commerce platforms

Implementation of AI technologies into contemporary e-shop platforms provides a lot of hurdles. The privacy and safety of user data could be one of the most severe dangers. AI systems operate on customer information for data mining purposes, thus creating the threats of information breach or abuse of data due to the large amount of data that is held. Furthermore, the corporate employment of concealed AI systems, which accept decisions without explicit reasons, may result in unacceptable decision-making and fall-off customer trust. Along these lines, the continuous advancement of artificial intelligence means that enterprises have to catch up with the current technology trends and fully exploit AI, which is hard work. Consequently, enterprises have to go through these obstacles to exploit the full power of AI systems as well as the possible issues related to operationality, ethics, and adaptation on e-commerce marketplaces.

Training and equipping employees to appropriately use AI is cared on the descrease of disorder which might appear from AI and help to make AI more effective for shaping consumer demand in e-commerce. The impact on marketing plans and customers' attitudes after the introduction of Artificial intelligence is remarkable;

that is why businesses should think about special training and understanding skills for their staff to properly use the AI systems. AI provides options for new business models and sales processes, while workers learn how to align with those models and operations to develop better customer experience via new systems that fill the gap between business and their consumers.

To this end, the staff must be trained in machine learning and be provided with the market and competition information on which models are built to fully harness the potential of machine learning. Consequently, the development and application of AI capabilities need to be supplemented with proper training and upskilling of the employees needed for the business to stay at the top and remain afloat as demands keep booming. Employees must receive adequate training and continuous upskilling for organizations to successfully implement AI in their E-Commerce business. Moreover, ethics training for employees helps to consider the aspect of AI adoption in a responsible manner as well as to win consumer trust. This in turn contributes to the business' solid position in the e-commerce market. Consequently, providing employees with training and upskilling is a prerequisite for businesses to adopt AI strategically and remain ahead of the enlarging competitive curve in modernized e-commerce [15–20].

10 Conclusion

Artificial intelligence (AI) is transforming the e-commerce landscape by addressing pressing issues such as optimizing supply chain management, creating engaging consumer experiences, and personalizing online shopping. AI's groundbreaking capabilities, including analyzing vast amounts of data, identifying complex patterns, and providing accurate predictions, are revolutionizing the way businesses operate and interact with customers.

To remain competitive, businesses must cater to evolving consumer demands and elevate living standards. AI is instrumental in achieving this goal, supporting areas such as market segmentation, customer behavior research, and future behavior prediction.

Furthermore, AI significantly influences inquiries, assists in product propositions, enhances online security, and facilitates technological testing to boost corporate efficiency and customer-centricity.

As AI continues to advance, it will further enhance online shopping experiences by improving recommendations, optimizing performance, and dynamically adjusting prices. Although challenges remain, integrating AI and e-commerce will yield significant progress.

Personalization is critical to maintaining customer satisfaction and loyalty, essential for the future of e-commerce. AI-driven solutions will play a vital role in enhancing personalization, strengthening customer relationships, and improving retention and satisfaction rates.

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Application, Benefits, and Challenges of Artificial Intelligence for Student Assessment: A Literature Review

Ankur Nandi, Sourav Sen, Santu Karmakar, Tapash Das, and Tarini Hader

Abstract This chapter studies the application, benefits, and challenges of artificial intelligence (AI) for learners assessment. This study is a review-based study that falls under qualitative research. The researcher collected data from various sources such as journal papers, theses, books, magazines, blogs, etc. This study highlights that artificial intelligence (AI) has improved student assessment by making grading easier, personalizing learning, and boosting academic integrity with proctoring. AI also uses predictive analytics, gamified assessments, and evaluations to enhance engagement and outcomes. However, challenges include bias, lack of human judgment, over-reliance on technology, and data privacy issues, emphasizing the need for human oversight.

Keywords Artificial intelligence · Student assessment · Applications · Benefits · Challenges

1 Introduction

One of the branches of science & engineering is AI that enables us to make technological advances using intelligent systems. They reflect human intelligence; however, processes can be directly observed within a biological framework [1, 2]. The use of AI is slowly being adopted in educational research, technology, management science, and operational research. Intelligence is commonly defined as the ability to gather information to address complex problems. In the world, machines will displace humans in a very short time. AI refers to the science of smart computers &

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programs that are capable of reasoning, learning, absorbing knowledge, communicating, manipulating, and perceiving objects [3]. The number of new technologies that already exist is increasing. Very few people know the evolving technology inside out. People will need time to adapt to these changes [4]. Most AI systems are constructed as components of elaborate applications wherein they contribute to intelligence in one or more manners, like enabling them to process natural language, reason with knowledge, or learn and adapt [5]. However, it can be noted that formal representations of knowledge about some domains, e.g., expert/ planning systems and pure AI systems [5]. The basic concepts of AI include reasoning, cognition, planning, learning, perception, connection, and the ability to transfer and manipulate things. Creating intelligent devices, especially expert systems, is a scientific and engineering endeavour [6].

The incorporation of Artificial Intelligence (AI) has transformed students' study patterns, enabling timely feedback and adaptive learning opportunities. "NLP" tech aids in automating the grading of assignments and exams, analyzing student performance data, and allowing for adaptive and personalized learning to occur. While AI can reduce human error and support teachers in identifying students who need extra help, issues like ethics, data security, and algorithm issues must be addressed for fair use. Understanding AI's benefits and challenges is vital for educators and policymakers. Thus, researchers were motivated to carry out this study.

2 Objectives

1. To describe the applications of artificial intelligence (AI) in student assessment.
2. To highlight the benefits of using artificial intelligence (AI) for student assessment.
3. To find out the challenges and limitations of artificial intelligence (AI) in student assessment.
4. To provide suggestions for effective uses of artificial intelligence (AI) in student assessment.

3 Methodology

The present study was carried out using a qualitative research design based on the literature review method. In the study's purpose literature review was conducted to find out the use, benefits, and challenges of AI in students' assessment. Relevant literature was collected from different databases (Google Scholar, JSTOR, and Science Direct) and various web pages by the key terms like "AI and Student Assessment," "AI and Educational Assessment," "Benefits and Challenges of AI in Learner Assessment," etc. Every selected literature was thoroughly examined, and the content was categorised according to different objectives.

4 Discussion

4.1 Applications of Artificial Intelligence (AI) for Student Assessment

Conventional test administration methods require students to be physically present in a classroom or testing facility, by guides or invigilators control their behaviour to prevent cheating. However, the popularity of remote exams has increased due to technological advancements and the proliferation of online learning. As a result, innovative approaches are now needed to ensure the integrity of the examination process and prevent fraud. An AI-powered online exam proctoring system provides an innovative solution to these problems [7]. The study "Artificial Intelligence in Educational Assessment" explores how AI technology can be incorporated into educational assessment. For learning itself, tests are the very basics and they show how well a person learned [8]. AI-based solutions provide detailed information about learners' growth metrics and study patterns. In addition to making testing easier, these tools show teachers where students are falling short in learning and how they can support them intensively. The above is a rundown of the current uses of AI in assessment of students.

Educational assessment is now complemented by AI for skill enhancement and individualization. For instance—One International use case that takes advantage of AI includes British Council [9] The IELTS smart learning application gives students with an AI machine rate of their spoken English which provides them instant scores and feedback about their spoken English which helps in the busy schedule of students and makes the assessment more accurate. In parallel, University of Technology Sydney teachers are devising new ways of assessing students that are informed by AI technology such as ChatGPT but assess the product of the learning [10]. These applications demonstrate the potential of AI to revamp the assessment practices in education.

- **Automated Grading and Feedback System:** Primary and straightforward applications of AI in education may take place in grading. For educators, assessment can be time-consuming, particularly when dealing with large groups of students engaging in new pedagogies like e-learning. AI has made it better by lessening the time and effort to finish the appraisal by a large margin, and the appraisal assessment is fine. Applications are capable of automating student work with great speed and precision, whether it is written work such as essays and coding assignments or multiple-choice exams that can be graded automatically [11]. AI-based grading software can grade multiple-choice, short-answer, and even essay-type responses through Natural Language Processing (NLP). Research has shown that automated essay grading software, e.g., e-rater of ETS, will score writing with 80–90% accuracy as opposed to human graders [12]. Real-time feedback from AI maximizes learning by enabling the correction of errors and enhancing performance in a step-by-step manner [13].

- **Personalized and Adaptive Assessment:** One of its most important impacts on education is the potential of artificial intelligence to provide personalized learning experiences. Since ancestral educational processes are often not tailored to the individual needs of the children, some children may find themselves falling behind, while others may not feel challenged enough. AI solves this by gathering information about students' learning preferences, strengths, weaknesses, and improvement needs before tailoring curriculum content to suit each student's unique needs. AI-driven tools, such as intelligent tutoring systems, for instance, adapt to a learner's speed, giving extra practice where needed or skipping on when a subject is mastered. This personalized pathway enables learners to work independently, thereby in turn enhancing understanding and engagement [14]. Smart adaptive testing utilizes artificial intelligence to change the question difficulty depending on how a student responds, ensuring that the student gets the right amount of challenge. Wu et al. [15] reveal those adaptive assessments lead to improved student engagement and reduced test anxiety through appropriate tailoring of difficulty to individual proficiency levels. Adaptive systems powered by artificial intelligence, such as Duolingo's English Test and the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) rely on machine learning algorithms to tailor assessments that are better predictors of student ability.
- **AI in Formative Assessment and Feedback Generation:** AI has significant potential for formative assessment by improving both the quality and quantity of feedback [16, 17]. Formative assessment is primarily used to inform teachers about students' gaps in learning and strengths to guide their instruction, guide students to self-regulate their learning, and provide timely feedback based on their input. Furthermore, it can generate real-time in-depth, personalized, targeted, and observable feedback from the data by examining trends [18, 19]. Such features are integrated into some computerized formative assessments and intelligent teaching approaches to potentially offer more exact and autonomous assessments of each student's learning trajectory and therefore more relevant feedback that considers their learning level at a specific time [16, 20]. Formative tests are given to measure the students' existing knowledge and help them learn more later. Some AI-powered tools, like chatbots and interactive quizzes for continuous evaluation. From research by [21], it was found that formative assessments with the help of AI can help increase the performance of students by 15–30% depending on the nature of intervention suggested. Sometimes called "ITS", like "Carnegie Learning's MATHia", these packages use AI to monitor students and the data they input, adjusting the instructional material accordingly.
- **AI in Gamified Assessments:** Gamified test assessments driven by artificial intelligence create a unique intersection between educational psychology, gamification, and AI, as a result, transforming assessment practices and improving the accuracy of assessments, while supporting student participation for both academic and professional development. Many of the studies have already explored AI in adaptive assessment, which has shown its potential to modify information simultaneously through responsive feedback from the student, while modifying the assessment context. Adaptive platforms, or Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS),

use machine learning processes to modify the feedback and adjust the degrees of difficulty based on individual learners' needs and development, for improved understanding and retention of knowledge [22, 23].

- **AI and Peer Assessment:** Trust is paramount in peer assessment on behalf of peer assessors and the person being assessed. To ensure that measures of assessment are being used consistently during each peer assessment, AI can provide trustworthiness through leveraging algorithmic power to analyze data across whole responses of assessors, and appropriately scored responses of the person being assessed. Data can be provided to assessors and the person being assessed based on positive and negative patterns of feedback provided by the adjustably group, and simultaneously after the person being assessed has had an opportunity to readjust the scoring on their own using specific criteria provided by themselves and the peer commission. AI could process massive amounts of data, and therefore, provide more powerful, informative, and definitive assessment models based on data, especially peer assessment models that use larger sets of assessors than traditional and non-AI models, which have limitations in their functions [24].
- **AI and Emotion and Behaviour assessment:** The development of AI in education has greatly improved the practice of recognizing, measuring, and improving a learner's emotional response to an educational journey. The ability of AI to seamlessly parse through masses of data means that we can better understand each child and their individual needs as a learner, and in the patterns of emotional behaviours being tracked throughout an MAE. Emotional assessment measures are responsive by nature because they create trusting opportunities to provide students feedback immediately based on interpretation of emotions, while modifying the assessment to make students feel more included, as well as support their mental health and capacity for a better learning experience. The whole cycle is so important for children becoming adults through emotional experience because they are learning to develop regulatory skills for their emotional behaviours for social and academic success, as well as become better relational partners with their peers [25].
- **AI-Driven Predictive Analytics for Student Educational Attainment:** AI-Driven Predictive Analytics for Student Performance. AI has become a basis for creating new conditions for the development of a modern individual in the education system. One of the most interesting applications of AI is predictive analytics, which involves machine learning algorithms to assess abundant data and predict future educational results. Such prediction models demonstrate insights that assessments on other grounds do not notice, assessing numerous aspects of student behavior related to their academic performance, engagement, and learning patterns [26]. Hence, predictive analytics detects potential academic problems and personalizes learning paths, enabling teachers to take preventive actions as soon as possible [27].
- **AI-Powered Proctoring and Integrity Monitoring:** Due to the growth of remote testing and online learning, there is a growing need for safe and trustworthy online test proctoring systems. YOLO and face detection are two examples of AI algorithms used to develop a photo/video exam monitoring system that detects and

stops academic violations during online exams. Due to the system's user-friendly, scalable, and adaptive design, teachers can conduct secure online tests with less setup and preparation. This method enables educational institutions to administer online exams with no fear of cheating or impersonation. Artificial intelligence algorithm-powered exam proctoring can provide an unbiased and just exam process, which eventually ensures better outcomes in education [7]. With the assistance of AI-proctoring-based assessment systems, it is now possible to evaluate fairly. So, these kinds of systems really improve educational outcomes and strengthen the connections between teachers and students on one side, while also ensuring the accuracy and integrity of tests on the other [28]. One effective approach is to leverage AI to gain a comprehensive and actionable understanding of each learner's growth and mastery journey. This creates a solid foundation for evaluating how a student transitions from learning to true concern and mastery. AI clearly outlines the necessary steps, simplifies the assessment process, and helps teachers identify any learning gaps. Some of the AI-driven solutions include automated grading systems, personalized tests, formative assessments, AI-powered proctoring and integrity checks, predictive performance analysis, game-based assessments, peer evaluations, and tests focused on emotional and behavioral aspects.

Benefits of using artificial intelligence (AI) for student assessment

- **Minimizing human error:** Artificial intelligence (AI) is run on pre-programmed algorithms and data, which minimizes errors and maximizes accuracy in performing different tasks. This capability enhances more accurate decision-making and implementation [29, 30].
- **Assisting teachers/educators:** AI supports teachers by automating grading, aiding in lesson planning, and identifying students who require additional help. AI-generated lesson plans provide a structured framework, making the teaching–learning process more engaging. AI makes the evaluation process faster and accurate, and it is possible to provide the necessary assistance to the students by analyzing the activity of the students [29, 31, 32].
- **Real-Time Feedback:** AI provides quick feedback, which is crucial for the betterment of learning. Students can get immediate insights into how they are doing. Instead of waiting days or weeks for grades [33]. This fast feedback allows learners to find their strengths and weaknesses quickly, helping them improve their learning. Recent research backs this up. Studies show that learning platforms using AI can give personalized feedback, suggest resources, and offer practice tasks right after assignments. Simply put, this method helps students clear up confusion early. This way, small gaps in knowledge do not turn into big problems in their learning journey.
- **Enhancing speed in manual assessment:** Educational organizations frequently deal with routine administrative work such as managing student records, timetable creation, and handling certificate issuance. To put it another way, such processes require high accuracy but typically involve repetitive actions that take a great deal of time to complete—and so may get faulty over a large period by humans. That

will lead to the risk of mistakes over extended periods of time, leading to cheaper and more flexible automation solutions, according to some studies.

- **Improving equity in education:** Artificial intelligence can also play a role in educational assessment mechanisms to promote fairness in the learning environment. In other words, traditional methods may only benefit certain student populations while disadvantaging others; the socioeconomically unprivileged student or the disadvantaged student. With data-based assessment metrics, AI can then provide a more balanced evaluation based on observed achievement patterns across different backgrounds of people. In this way, learning opportunities are equally accessible for students of different backgrounds [34].

Challenges and limitations of artificial intelligence (AI) for student assessment

- **Lack of Human-Like Judgment in Complex Assessments:** Despite great advances in assessing subjective tests such as essays and open-ended questions, AI-powered systems find it difficult to accurately capture the creativity, critical thinking, and depth of complex reasoning that are often important in academic assessment. Algorithms used by machines are generally quite good at analyzing organized data and identifying patterns, but they are not very good at understanding the complex and nuanced aspects of human creativity and thought [35]. AI lacks the sophistication to determine whether it has complex abilities, inventiveness, and organizational abilities that are consistent with assessment standards and criteria, although it can generally assess basic writing skills such as grammar, syntax, and spelling. This restriction emphasizes how human judgment and experience are essential to accurately assess these complex aspects of student work [35, 36].
- **Bias in AI Algorithms:** The term "bias in AI" describes unfair and systematic biases or biases in AI systems that can produce discriminatory results [37]. Bias within AI systems can be exhibited in multiple ways and result in significant impacts. This type of bias in machine algorithms commonly results from automated mechanisms expressing preference toward groups, individual traits, or other personal attributes. This bias tends to further promote existing disparities. A regulatory body has noted that reporting unequal outcomes is often more difficult when dealing with complex and well-designed mechanisms, and internal operations are opaque. The technical wording means that the decision-making algorithms may not be aware of their biases and implicit biases, and therefore fail to consider readjusting based on previous evidence—this may occur when calculating past employment records or approval for loans. In such cases, the system may reproduce past prejudices, which appear neutral at first appearance-through complex mathematical patterns, which in most cases would appear as neutral to the human eye. In many cases, to address discrimination in any way, an ongoing policy framework is needed, integrating both technical complexity and ethical considerations. For addressing discrimination in any kind of framework, there are several strategies to be developed and implemented to address potential biases. The data on which AI is programmed on algorithm can also be

unfair if biased, so it can produce unfair results. Zou et al. [38] wrote about algorithms that display biases against minority groups because bias is found in these datasets. To lessen this bias, researchers recommend using diverse datasets and using machine learning methods that consider fairness [39]. Regular auditing and human oversight are also important to prevent bias and equity in AI assessments.

- **Overdependence on Technology:** Overreliance on AI in academic discourse can lead to deterioration in academic integrity by increasing the likelihood of plagiarism and reducing the novelty of student work [40]. An application with artificial intelligence, for example, Essay Grader, which can evaluate essays and grade them, but does not provide the individualized or detailed feedback that a teacher can give on a student's growth [41]. Hence, dependence too much on AI for assessment may limit customized feedback, which is essential for overall student growth, and reduce teacher engagement, thereby weakening the teacher-student bond.
- **Inability to Assess Emotional and Psychological Aspects:** A lack of transparency in highly black-box AI is a primary argument against artificial emotions [42]. A common criticism of artificial intelligence in education is that it lacks emotional intelligence, which many people believe is an important component of education. While AI technology can assist in various activities and provide information, it cannot completely replace the role of teachers. Teachers provide more than just information, They also offer personalized assistance and emotional support, which AI systems are yet to provide [43].
- **Risk of Misuse:** The use of machine learning and other AI technologies in the field of education has made it possible to cheat or foil educational assessments through assignment completion, problem-solving, and even student testing. What is most worrying is that such cheating goes largely undetected and has the potential to undermine the foundation of education. Advanced code generators, language models, or calculators can provide a resourceful learner with an immediate response or solution that, in many situations, would be difficult to decipher from what a knowledgeable person can provide [44]. Because this can confuse graders, students may receive credit for writing that does not represent their abilities. Consequently, it is important to recognize these new forms of academic malpractice and develop possible remedies [45].
- **Data Privacy and Security Risks***:* Because AI systems can independently analyze, infer, and learn from data, they present exceptional data privacy challenges that traditional systems do not. For example, an AI system based on information from multiple sources may inadvertently combine datasets in ways that reveal personal information or identify individuals [46]. With increasing sophistication, AI will be able to make decisions based on data patterns that are difficult for humans to see. As a result, people may not even be aware that decisions affecting them are being made using their data [47].
- **Reduced Student Engagement and Motivation:** Complex, empathetic exchanges between educators and students cannot be replaced by AI. For students to grow, the human elements of instruction—such as emotional encouragement and mentoring—are essential [48, 49]. While AI will not replace teachers, it has

a detrimental effect on student interactions because it does not provide human stimulation, which can lead to low motivation [50].

- **Digital Divide and Accessibility Issues***:* A large number of students do not have obtain to the technology needed to engage in online learning programs, especially those who live in rural or low-income areas. Computers, iPads, and high-speed internet connections can all fall under this group [51]. The cost of implementing AI solutions can widen the gap that already exists between educational institutions with adequate funding and those with insufficient funding. Integrating and purchasing cutting-edge AI technologies can be difficult for smaller or less affluent schools [48].

AI has entirely revolutionized education by giving personalized learning paths and automated grading systems. Some of its drawbacks include the inability to assess emotional and psychological aspects, biases in AI algorithms, over-dependence on technology, the potential for exploitation, data privacy and security issues, reduced student engagement and motivation, and concerns about accessibility and the digital divide. That will naturally be a limit to the extent to which human judgment and experience are essential for measuring the multifaceted dimensions of this student's work accurately.

Suggestions for effective uses of artificial intelligence (AI) in student assessment

- AI tools must be upgraded periodically as per user feedback and educational research. Teachers require training on how to use AI in assessment. A study done by [52] said that professional development programs on AI-based assessment tools boost the confidence of educators in using AI for class measurement and feedback.
- AI-based evaluations require transparent design principles that prioritize ethical considerations. Both teachers and students need to know how AI algorithms operate and why AI systems produce specific assessment results. Floridi [53] stress the significance of ethical guidelines for AI systems, which demand transparency alongside accountability and privacy protection. Educational institutions need to establish policies that guarantee ethical AI practices during student evaluation processes.
- AI should complement, not replace, human assessment. According to [54], AI systems struggle with the proper assessment of creativity and emotional intelligence, together with critical thinking. Educators must apply critical judgment to AI-generated insights while integrating human assessment into their evaluations. The combination of AI-based scoring systems with human reviews leads to more precise assessment outcomes according to [55].
- In the case of online examinations, AI tools maintain the Academy's integrity by preventing cheating during the time of examination. AI tools and software analyze the students' writing and activities. Different research shows that students' concerns and privacy of personal information are a big threat to AI-driven surveillance. Educational institutions must adopt transparent AI policies that maintain privacy and balance academic integrity.

- To establish a cooperative ambience where teachers and AI will work simultaneously. Artificial intelligence will make the teaching process fruitful by providing personalized support to teachers and learners, and developing a teaching and evaluation system with integration of human teachers and AI Technology.
- Policies and recommendations concerning appropriate AI use in education should be followed. International organizations prepare ethical standards and guidelines for a better AI role in the teaching and learning process, so all these guidelines and recommendations need to be followed.
- Continuous evaluation and development of AI AI-based evaluation system is required to observe how AI tools impact student learning and assessment, evaluate the pros and cons of AI-based assessment by teachers, and teachers should find a suitable solution.

5 Conclusion

In conclusion, evolutionary change in student assessment has been made through artificial intelligence by automatically grading and personalizing learning. Different AI tools, such as predictive analysis and game-based evaluation, help in learner involvement and success in learning; however, AI has some serious challenges, such as data privacy concerns, AI algorithm bias, and over dependency on technology etc. Although AI helps to maintain fairness and accuracy in the overall assessment. By establishing the right balance between AI and human skills, we can take the benefits of AI on the one hand and overcome its limitations on the other-especially in educational evaluation.

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Design of Advanced AZ61 Magnesium Composites with Enhanced Strength and Ductility Using ANN-Based Computational Modeling

Amit Tiwari

Abstract The realization of lightweight and high-performance materials is essential for advancing electric vehicle (EV) technologies. A fundamentally new computational modeling framework for design and optimizing the rolling process of the AZ61 magnesium alloy containing (6 wt.% aluminium, and 1 wt.% zinc) composite providing an ideal combination of high strength and ductility for EV applications. Based on artificial neural network (ANN), the research uses an approximation model of non-linear and coupled thermal–mechanical interactions in the rolling process. Modeling of key process parameters such as rolling temperature, number of passes, and initial thickness, where the mechanical properties such as tensile strength and ductility were predicted. The novelty of this work is the use of ANN to both empower a comprehensive exploration of the nontrivial parameter-property space as well as an optimization that are often difficult to achieve with classical means. This new AZ61 composite presents enhanced mechanical properties, crucial for lightweight EV components, thus resulting in enhanced energy efficiency without compromising on the structural integrity. This computational approach paves the way for more scalable methodologies to design lightweight materials and cut down trial-and-error experiments in industrial practices. Blueprints for the optimized magnesium alloys will serve as a springboard for future implementations of AI to design new materials with improved properties, accelerating progress in EV materials design and fabrication methods.

Keywords ANN modeling · Mechanical properties · AZ61 composite · Electric vehicle · Lightweight material

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1 Introduction

The shift towards sustainable mobility has unlocked innovative developments in electric vehicle (EV) technologies, and materials science has been a key contributing factor. Meet the stringent performance, energy efficiency and safety requirements of EVs from the use of lightweight materials which possess high strength and high ductility [1]. In this context, computational modeling has become a powerful tool for design and optimization of materials which can drastically accelerate the pace of development while reducing costs and time incurred in conventional experimental approaches. EVs can benefit from weight-saving measures for better energy efficiency and range. Most significant, unlike typical internal combustion engine vehicles, EVs depend on battery-powered energy storage systems, meaning extra weight correlates directly to reduced range or performance [2, 3]. This challenge has been met in part by lightweight materials such as magnesium alloys, aluminium alloys, and advanced composites. However, the trade-off between weight reduction and ductility is still an important challenge. By simulating material behaviours across multiple scales, from atomic interactions to macroscopic performance, computational modelling offers a means of analysing these properties and optimising them [4].

Materials development is typically empirical and requires extensive experimentation, which is time-consuming and expensive. This is where computational modeling speeds things up, and allows for virtual experimentation and predictive analysis. For instance, first-principles simulations based on density functional theory (DFT) and molecular dynamics (MD) can uncover atomic level mechanisms of strengthening and deformation in lightweight alloys (e.g., dislocation-precipitate interaction in magnesium or aluminium alloys) [5, 6]. To identify optimal combinations for EV applications without time-consuming trial-and-error experimentation, high-throughput computational techniques and machine learning can also be employed to screen thousands of material compositions and processing parameters [7]. Achieving a balance between strength, and ductility, is one of the most significant challenges in lightweight material design. Furthermore, mechanisms that lead to strength, such as grain refinement and precipitation hardening, are typically achieved at the expense of ductility. Computational modeling can aid this by unraveling microstructure-property relationships. As a case in point, computational models based on crystal plasticity finite element modeling (CPFEM) can quantitatively capture how grain boundaries and texturing contribute to ductility, aiding the design of alloys that combine satisfactory mechanical performance with desirable phase and composition characteristics. Like phase-field modeling of precipitation kinetics, these techniques allow for the optimization of heat treatment processes to achieve a desired combination of strength and ductility [8–10].

With the growing industry of electrified vehicles, extensive research has taken place into the materials that will improve an electric vehicle (EV) in its efficiency,

safety and sustainability. Innovative developments in lightweight materials, high-performance composites, and advanced alloys are leading the way in this transformation, translating into enhanced energy efficiency, range, and structural integrity [11]. This type of aluminium has a great strength-to-weight ratio, and numerous corrosion resistance and recyclability for electric vehicles. These properties make use of aluminium well suited for structural components including chassis, battery enclosures, and body panels. Also, novel alloying approaches and processing methods for enhancing the electrical performance of aluminium alloys used in electric vehicle applications have been recently published. Ko and Hamad [12] helped to optimize heat treatment and alloying elements of Al–Mg-Si alloys to be used in a battery housing it reported that mechanical good properties were achieved while corrosion resistance was maintained. Similarly, Tiwari et al. [13] showed how grain refinement improves strength and fatigue resistance of the 6xxx series aluminum alloys as an extruded product.

Since magnesium alloys (35% lighter than aluminium) have attracted attention as a potential light weighting substitute for EVs. But their application has been restricted by problems such as low ductility and susceptibility to corrosion feedback the challenges can be addressed through alloying and surface treatments, an ongoing area of research. Srinivas et al. [14] investigated AZ61 magnesium alloy for EV component applications, demonstrating enhancement in thermal stability and mechanical properties with rare-earth element addition. Furthermore, micro-arc oxidation (MAO) coatings improved corrosion resistance, which demonstrate the feature of possibility to use magnesium alloys successfully in aggressive environments for an extended time [15]. Though heavier than aluminium and magnesium, AHSS is still fundamental to EV manufacturing due to its better strength-to-cost ratio. It is used extensively for high crash resistance applications specifically in safety–critical structures. The third-generation AHSS has been evaluated for application on frames of electric vehicles (EV), given their ultra-high tensile strength and ductility, which enables thinner sections compared to traditional steel grades, offsetting their disadvantage in weight. In addition, thermo mechanical treatments have been used to improve microstructures and diminish brittleness [14]

Non-structural components made out of polymers are critical in EV manufacturing as it allows lightweight solution and design flexibility. Common thermoplastics used for interior components are polycarbonate (PC) and polypropylene (PP), while thermosetting polymers used in composites are epoxy resins. Song et al. [16] used carbon fiber-reinforced epoxy composites in EV chassis, achieving a 40% weight reduction over steel counterparts without any loss of strength. EV battery systems require polymer flame retardancy. Hossain et al. [17] synthesized a series of novel halogen-free flame-retardant polycarbonate materials that not only conformed to a safety standard but also facilitated superior mechanical performance. This shift underlines the growing attention on multifunctional polymeric materials for electric vehicles.

Additive manufacturing, commonly known as 3D printing, has changed the way that intricate EV components are made with less material waste and greater design flexibility. Additive manufacturing of structural-lightweight components is broadening the use of aluminium and titanium alloys. Tiwari [18] investigated AM of

Al–Mg alloys by SLM for EV components producing fine microstructures and improved mechanical performance. Similarly, Bian et al. [15] who were successful in fabricating a magnesium alloy piece with complex geometry through SLM process, thereby facilitating the widespread adoption of additive manufacturing in EV manufacturing.

In light of energy demands and performance improvements, lightweight, high-strength materials for electric vehicles (EVs) are increasingly the subject of research. The materials include AZ61 magnesium alloy, which consists of mainly magnesium and aluminum and zinc alloying element, with advantages of low density, good machinability, and good mechanical properties [19]. Nevertheless, its limited ductility, lack of wear resistance, and tendency to crack are important limitations that prevent its more widespread use. This literature review discusses the recent advances in the developing and optimizing AZ61 magnesium alloys and their composites in terms of computational modeling, experimental validation, and EV applications. A lot of research work has been done in the area to refine the microstructure of AZ61 magnesium alloys to improve mechanical properties. A great firing application showing up in metal-parts manufacturing is extrusion, a compressing forming process utilizing heat and pressure which is shown to develop a refined grain structure resulting in greater strength and ductility [20]. The study by Li et al. [21], reported that the optimized extrusion conditions resulted in AZ61 with ultra-fine grains that led to superior elongation with an improved ultimate tensile strength. This new finding is in accordance with studies shown by Prasad et al. [22], observed that reducing grain size through extrusion enhances the alloy's resistance to deformation. A similar well-studied route is the addition of RE elements. Luo [23], studied the influence of yttrium and cerium additions to AZ61 alloys and showed that RE elements significantly reduce the grain size as well as basal texture which also lead to an improvement in both strength and ductility. Similarly, Patel et al. [24], incorporation of gadolinium led to the formation of RE-containing precipitates that improved thermal stability and load-bearing capability.

Heat treatment and aging processes have also been studied to ensure an optimal precipitation of strengthening phases. Yang et al. [25] found that an aging process performed at intermediate temperatures favour the precipitation of well-dispersed $Mg_{17}Al_{12}$ precipitates that serve as effective obstacles to dislocation motion. Wu et al. [26], confirmed this behaviour noted that precipitation kinetics should be controlled to obtain a balance between strength and ductility. To increase wear resistance, strength, and ductility, it has been a common practice to investigate the addition of reinforcement materials to AZ61 alloys. Ceramic reinforcement particles like SiC, Al_2O_3, and TiB_2 have improved mechanical performance significantly. For instance, Chen et al. [27] prepared AZ61 composites reinforced with nano-SiC particles and reported an increase in tensile strength and hardness without the loss of ductility. Similarly Rakshith and Seenuvasaperumal [28], studied the incorporation of Al_2O_3 nanoparticles in AZ61, towards wear resistance and thermal stability, two critical properties for EV components. Other studies have been based on hybrid reinforcement. Tiwari et al. [29], studied AZ61 composites reinforced with the simultaneous addition of

SiC and graphene particles and a synergistic effect leading to improved mechanical strength and electrical conductivity. Such advancements are pertinent for EV applications, where multifunctional materials are increasingly being sought.

Driving towards sustainability and energy efficiency with latest technologies has invoked tremendous developments in materials designing particularly for electric vehicles (EVs) applications. As the automotive industry moves to electrification, the demand for lightweight yet high strength materials has increased. This is primarily due to the stringent demands of reducing weight from vehicles, venturing impact on battery efficiency, battery range, and power consumption. In this regard, magnesium alloys have attracted much attention, and have been incorporated as an AZ61 (Mg–Al–Zn) composite with a high strength-to-weight ratio, fine machinability and the possibility of optimization of the mechanical properties through alloying and microstructural optimization.

As electric vehicles (EVs) continue to gain traction and the quest for high-performance, lightweight materials accelerates, there have been a plethora of advancements in materials science and computational modeling. AZ61 magnesium alloy, having a low density as well as a high specific strength, offers substantial potential for EV applications with a focus on the weight reduction. Its shortcomings, such as moderate strength and low ductility, hinder its broad application. Due to the lack of similar studies in the literature, the current work presents a ground breaking strategy that integrates computational modeling and artificial neural network (ANN) optimization to examine and develop AZ61 composites for EV applications, focusing on optimizing tensile strength and hardness while improving or sustaining ductility. This study presents a major innovation through the use of ANN modeling to predict and optimize the tensile strength and hardness of AZ61 composites. A wide range of input (rolling temperature, no of passes, and initial thickness of sample before rolling) and output properties (hardness and tensile strength), which exhibit complex, nonlinear relationships, can be modelled by ANN. ANN models, unlike conventional optimization methods that work with small data sets, process vast amounts of data, identify complex patterns and thus allow for accurate forecasting of outcomes and informed decisions. This study investigates the application of ANN with a wide dataset that includes both experimental and numerical outputs for processes of varying conditions on AZ61 composites. Reinforcement type and content, heat treatment protocols, and extrusion conditions are among the input parameters. The output from ANNs in our studies relates to tensile strength, and hardness, capturing the nuanced trade-offs between these properties. Using the ANN approach, the work establishes the best processing conditions and material compositions to enhance performance metrics relevant to EV applications. Such an ANN modeling overall framework integrated into a computational design plan would bring a great innovation with layering features. Initially, the findings emphasize a notable enhancement in the tensile strength and hardness properties of AZ61 composites, credited to the customized reinforcement distribution driven by computational insights. Second, the ANN model allows these properties to be optimized foreplanes much more rapidly than using iterative experiments and lays the groundwork for accelerated material development. This work has very practical and transformative

implications for the EV industry. Lightweight AZ61 composites will be optimized for high strength and ductility that can provide significant weight reduction for vehicles that improve energy efficiency and battery range. Additionally, the computational-ANN framework produced in this research is generalizable and can act as a scalable methodology for the design of other advanced materials. This study provides critical insights and advances the design and optimization of the AZ61 composites for EV applications. We report the use of ANN-based optimization to simultaneously deliver superior tensile strength and hardness with unrivaled ductility. By tackling important material design challenges, this endows the approach to not only advance the development of advanced lightweight and high-performance materials, it also serves the sustainability and efficiency improvement of next-generation electric vehicles (EVs).

2 Database Collection

A thorough database has been established based on the review of various studies compiling ~150 samples of AZ61 composite at different rolling parameters [5–23]. This information gives ideas about how each element plays its role and their participation in the final material behaviors. On the strength of the above observations, 32 elements are chosen as input variables. There are two output variables corresponding to the desired material properties: hardness (H) and tensile strength (MPa). Artificial Neural Networks (ANN): This dataset is used to train ANN models to estimate these features. For every ANN model, a relationship is developed between the selected input variables and the desired output property. Each output property is segregated for ANN model representation as it encourages individual prediction and later validated on optimization. Such models are critical for the insight into the nonlinear interactions among processing parameters and, mechanical properties which in turn, will provide a basis for optimizing AZ61 composite to achieve improved performance.

3 Computational Modeling

3.1 Artificial Neural Network

In this study, an artificial neural network was used to a significant extent to make predictions for various thermal applications. In the process of various predicting characteristics of the engine, artificial neural networks can be of assistance. The ANN model has a large number of processing components called “neurons” which are analogous to the neurons found in the human brain. They are connected, and data is sent to the neurons, where it is processed. They are also coupled with one

another. Learning is executed by the networks depending on the weights that are assigned to the neurons (i.e., learning, testing, and validation). The artificial neuron network is assessed based on its performance according to a function known as mean square error. The determination of the error weights is what is needed to carry out the process of activation level refinement. The phrase "feed-forward back propagation network" refers to the process of finding the error weights along the way. Since the experimental data were nonlinear, it was necessary to incorporate hidden layers into both the input and output layers; consequently, a multilayer neural network was developed. The training for the model was done using gradient descent with an adjustable learning rate (TRAINDA). The transfer function for the model's output was described as being of the hyperbolic tangent sigmoid (TANSIG), logarithmic sigmoid (LOGSIG), and linear (PURELIN) varieties.

3.2 Modeling and Simulation

Matlab R2021b version was used in the development of a model for an artificial neural network. All of the experiment trials that went into developing the ANN model employed load, speed, and blends as input variables. Data on emissions and performance that were gathered over the course of the experiment were included in the model in the capacity of output parameters. Table 1, provides a concise summary of the optimal configuration for the artificial neural network operation. The hidden layers have the responsibility of extracting characteristics from the input data and making use of this information to establish a correlation between specific outputs. The calculations that are performed by the hidden layers on the weighted inputs result in the production of net inputs, which are then used in conjunction with activation functions to generate the real output, as shown in Fig. 1.

The artificial neural network model was developed in Matlab R2021b version by utilizing multiple training methods, and functions and modifying the neurons in different layers. Transfer functions such as Tansig (Hyperbolic tangent sigmoid) and Logsig (logarithmic sigmoid) were implemented in the model's various stages. At first, the network operated for a total of 100 iterations. With weights and bias

Table 1 Optimum setting of the artificial neural network

ANN parameters setting for experiments	
ANN network category	Feed forward back propagation
Network learning function	LEARNGDM
Function used for performance	MSE
Function used for training	TRAINLM
Transfer function	Tansig/Purelin
Neurons used	10

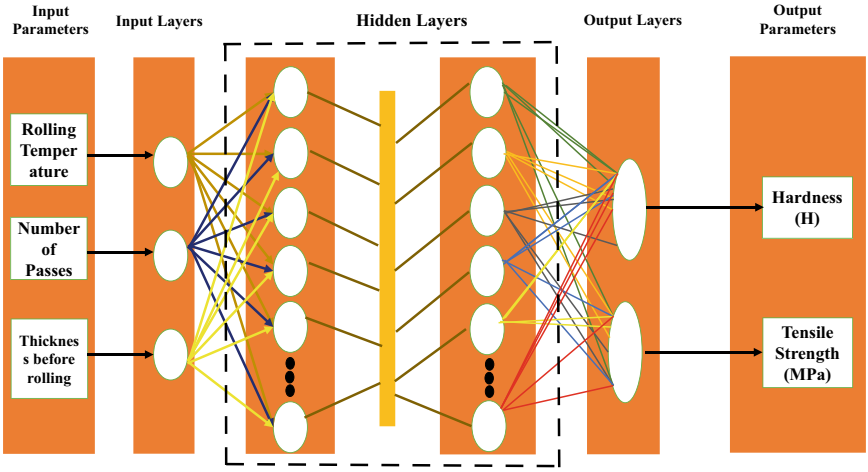


Fig. 1 The artificial neural network structure for the experiment

determined at random by Matlab. The network was terminated after 10,000 iterations, and the minimum gradient was set at 10^{-7}. To comprehend the result of the model, a simulation of all input data matching was carried out. The artificial neural network model was assessed using the regression coefficient Eq. (1), and mean square error Eq. (2) by applying the objectives and outputs of the models:

$$\text{Regression Coefficient} = \sqrt{1 - \left\{ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (T_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} O_i^2} \right\}} \tag{1}$$

$$\text{Mean Square Error} = \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} (T_i - O_i)^2 \right\} \tag{2}$$

In order to make an accurate assessment of the model, we combined the results of two statistical expressions: $R > 0.98$ and MSE 0.01. It would be finished after the iterations had been completed successfully. The artificial neural network technique that was constructed in Matlab R2021b version is shown in Fig. 2, and the results and discussion section discusses the data that was predicted by the artificial neural network model.

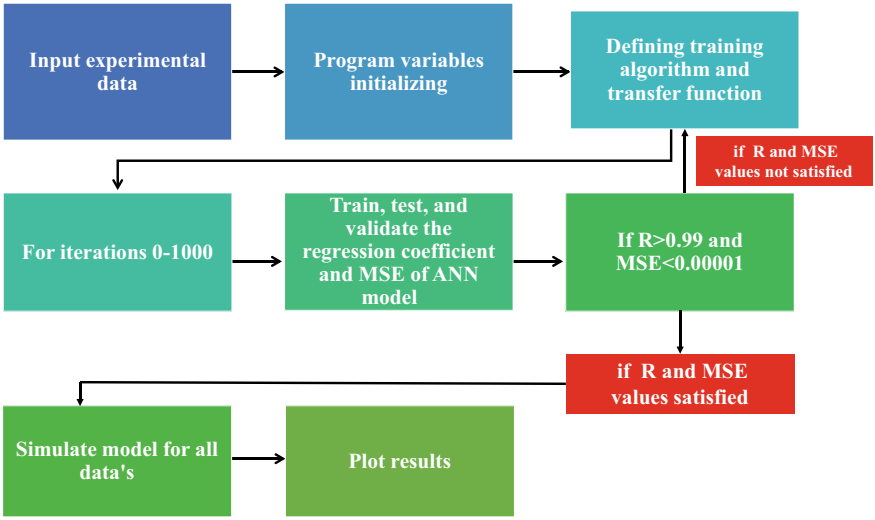

Input experimental data
Program variables initializing
Defining training algorithm and transfer function
if R and MSE values not satisfied
For iterations 0-1000
Train, test, and validate the regression coefficient and MSE of ANN model
If R>0.99 and MSE<0.00001
if R and MSE values satisfied
Simulate model for all data's
Plot results

Fig. 2 Artificial neural network model flowchart

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Determining Hidden Layers and Training of ANN

The amount of concealed layers has to be kept to a minimum as much as feasible. A neural network (ANN) is initially assumed to have one hidden layer. In cases where the output is not satisfactory, the number of layers will be raised once the artificial neural network has been trained. In addition, the consequence of the network may be produced by several different functions because of their versatility. For this investigation, the Levenberg–Marquardt function was utilized. Conceal the selected neural network block diagram in ANN Simulink are shown in Fig. 3. Three neurons were included in the input layer of the network that was implemented into the MATLAB program, and ten neurons were included in the hidden layer. The Fig. 4 shows the chosen neural network 3–10–2 contains 3 neurons in the input layer, 10 hidden layer with two neurons in it and two neuron in the output layer. Table 2 displays the optimum input parameters predicted by the Artificial Neural Network (ANN) for optimizing the hardness and tensile strength values of AZ61 composite. The table also includes the predicted values of the response variables determined by the Artificial Neural Network.

The network introduced in this study is a multilayer perceptron network with back propagation error. The Levenberg–Marquardt function was selected as the training function for the network under development because to its rapid convergence capability. The transfer function was determined by trial and error until the mean square error reached the lowest value in both the training and testing sets. Three separate

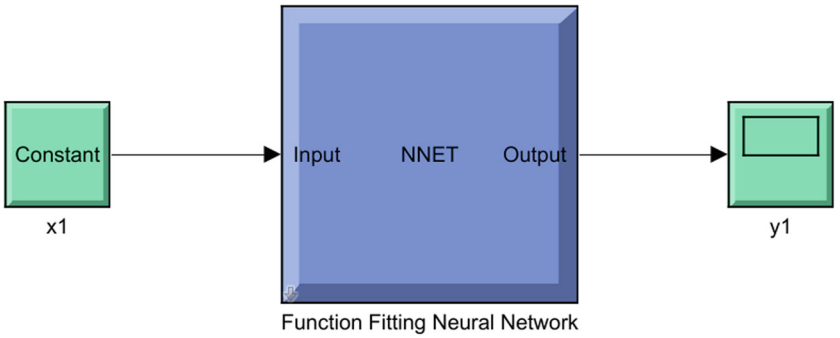


Fig. 3 Conceal the specific neural network block diagram inside the ANN configuration in simulink

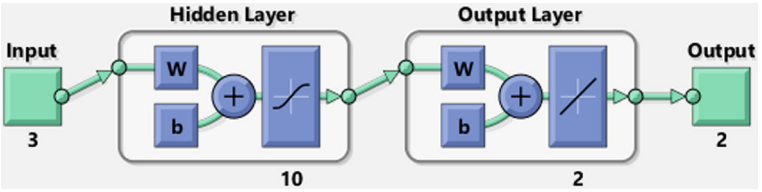


Fig. 4 Revelation of the ANN simulink block diagram for the selected neural network

groups were selected at random from the dataset. When it came to testing and validation, though, 15% of the data was utilized appropriately. Gathering the network's details used 70% of the data. The number of epochs was determined to be 1000. After three iterations, the network was able to get the best achievable acquisition error. Figure 7, shows the regression analysis diagrams of all engine performance and emission characteristics.

Figure 3, shows a model for a function-value computing network. When $\times 1$ is provided as the input, $y1$ will be returned. An input signal coming to the network is denoted by a "Constant" block with the name $\times 1$. It can be a constant parameter or even an anchor point. The input is relayed through the neural network NNET to achieve the-required output with its layers and neurons utilized for the conversion process. The output $y1$ is the result of function fitting performed by the neural network. Here the output is crucial as it represents the neural network's estimate of the goal function for input $\times 1$. Thus $y1$ tells us about the precision and utility of a network. And that's why in later sections we must be mindful not to lose sight of its definition in relation to those ends implicated by this model. Figure 4, shows the chosen neural network 3–10–2 contains 3 neurons in the input layer, 10 hidden layer with two neurons in it and two neuron in the output layer.

Table 2 Artificial neural network (ANN) predicted results of hardness value and tensile strength of AZ61 composite

Input parameters			Output parameters	
Rolling temperature (°C)	No. of passes	Thickness before rolling (mm)	ANN predicted hardness (H)	ANN predicted tensile strength (MPa)
100	2	10	67	152
100	2	11	89	158
100	2	12	87	173
100	2	13	84	174
150	3	10	80	182
150	3	11	98	188
150	3	12	96	176
150	3	13	96	191
200	4	10	101	213
200	4	11	101	239
200	4	12	107	236
200	4	13	108	226
250	5	10	103	238
250	5	11	103	241
250	5	12	100	247
250	5	13	109	252
300	2	10	107	135
300	2	11	129	141
300	2	12	131	154
300	2	13	121	159
350	3	10	119	166
350	3	11	141	269
350	3	12	142	253
350	3	13	135	175
400	4	10	140	197
400	4	11	144	221
400	4	12	139	218
400	4	13	132	208
450	5	10	144	221
450	5	11	132	235
450	5	12	142	237
450	5	13	137	254

4.2 Mean Square Error Plot of Hardness Value and Tensile Strength Value

Figure 5a, shows the MSE function versus epochs (0–8) from a model trained on AZ61 composite hardness data. The plot of the MSE is set in a log scale as it can range significantly. There are three different curves for the MSE for train, validation and test set and then there is the fourth line as a best validation performance at first, The training, validation and test erros are high and remain close together as the model is not learning much from the data yet. The validation set MSE hits its lowest point around epoch 3 with a value of ~1.5958, labeled as "Best Validation Performance". From epoch 3 onwards, validation/test error are peaking away from the training error, which suggests that more training is starting to benefit just the training dataset and not generalization ability. This discrepancy is indicative of overfitting where the model starts to memorize train data rather than learning it. After epoch 3, the training error continues to decrease dramatically, obtaining very low MSE values by epoch 8 This slope indicates that the model is becoming better at predicting on the training data, which may imply that the model is overfitting. But at some point, the validation and test errors plateau at a higher level with no further improvement in generalization. The widening performance gap between the training curve and both the validation/test curves after epoch 3 is a sign of overfitting as our model continues to get better on our training set, just not on unseen data (validation and test sets). In short, the plot shows what we expect to see in many areas of machine learning: after a few epochs we see improvement in generalization, but ultimately overfitting rules, and too much training ruins performance. Here, epoch 3 is regarded as the ideal point of stopping because that is when the model yields minimum error on the validation dataset and best generalization.

Figure 5b, represents the MSE while training to predict the tensile strength of AZ61 composite for 13 epochs. A log scale is plotted with MSE values for training, validation, and test datasets to get a better precision on observing error changes throughout the execution. The four different curves show the MSE on the training (blue), validation (green) and test (red) set, while the dashed line shows where we obtained our best validation performance. The lowest MSE that gave the best validation performance is around 1.4103 at epoch 12. This is that point on a plot between the very final model learning and where it best generalises. This implies that model learning is on the right track to minimize loss function and we are not seeing overfitting till epoch 12 as MSE for train, validation and test set are pretty close to each other. The convergence of these error curves indicates consistent model conduct over datasets, with minor separation between training and validation errors indicating a dominant generalization capability. However, this does not lead to any further refinement on the validation or test sets, indicating that the model has hit its limit for generalization. Adding further training beyond epoch 12 exhibits only marginal advantage in training error, and no additional decrease at all in validation or test error—hallmarks of potential over fitting were more training to occur. The smooth downward trending curve and the fact that the lowest point of validation error at

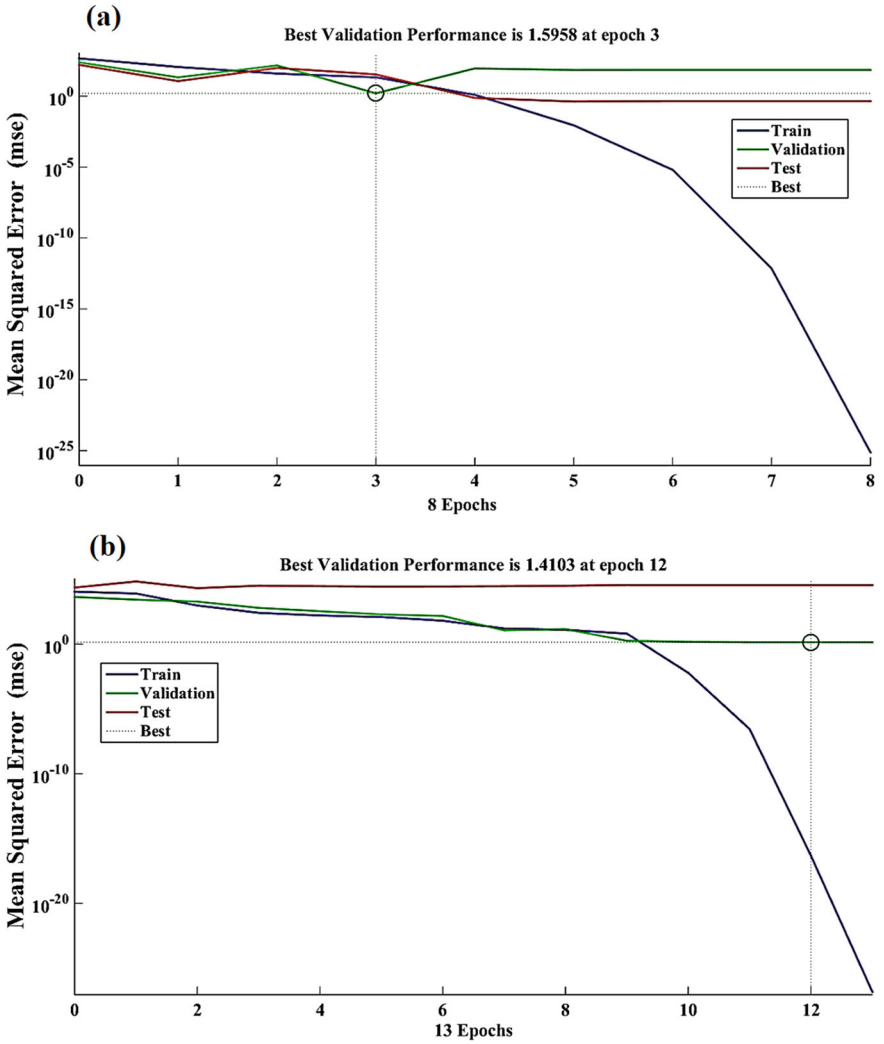


Fig. 5 Mean square error (MSE) performance of output **a** hardness value and **b** tensile strength value

epoch 12 was also optimal for predicting the tensile strength of AZ61 composite. Indicates that feature learning in this case was done fairly well. Here at this point the Minimum Square Error (MSE) is as low and accurate to model efficiently the major factors of tensile strength in AZ61 composite. This enables the accurate prediction of mechanical properties such as tensile strength that are critical in high-performance applications with AZ61 composite where reliability is the key point.

4.3 Error Histogram of Hardness Value and Tensile Strength Value

As indicated by the error histogram shown in the Fig. 6a, this highly nonlinear model has distinct prediction errors in each region of hardness values of AZ61 composite. The following histogram bins the errors (which are determined as target value minus model outputs) into 20 buckets ranging from around −13.19 to −0.3382. Each of the bins is a defined range of error values, while the y-axis represents how many instances (data points) fall into each bin. This plot shows the data split into training (blue), validation (green) and test datasets, as well as a zero error line in orange which indicates perfect prediction. Most of the instances are located near the bins at zero error, indicating that for a large number of predictions, the model does well and has small magnitude errors. The bin closest to zero shows the highest frequency of instances, with over ten training instances and little prediction error. The close-to-zero error spread shows that the model is able to accurately predict hardness values. However, there are a couple of cases with bigger errors in the space between −13.19 and −8.454 where error values shift further away from zero. The plot shows that even with the larger errors, which are in both the training and test datasets have shown where it was harder for the model to predict hardness. These kind of errors might arise due to noise in data or because some features which this model is not able to capture.

Indeed, both validation and test errors are less likely to be in the bins with high magnitudes indicating that there is no apparent overfitting or underfitting of the model for different datasets. This is demonstrated by how little error there is, zero in validation and test instances close to zero. More generally, this histogram indicates that the model works well for most of the data points but there are few larger errors on both training and test data. This distribution gives an indication of the model's predictive ability and generalization on the AZ61 composite hardness prediction, which is acceptable to be utilized with confidence for required specific hardness predictions.

Figure 6b, histogram of error diagram the prediction errors for tensile strength of AZ61 composite. Errors, which is the difference between target values and model predictions are plotted into 20 bins from around −2.879 to ~22.15 Each data point is indicated by whether it corresponds to a training (blue), validation (green) or test instance (red), and there is also a dotted vertical line at zero error (orange), indicating perfect prediction accuracy. Most of the errors lie close to zero, between about −2.879 and 1.073. The training data (blue) shows this with the high number of instances in these low-error bins suggesting that we can estimate tensile strength accurately for most training samples. Validation errors (in green) along with a low range that is close to zero error show the model positively generalizes to unseen data with no drop in performance. The test data has one extreme outlier (red) at 22.15 which is a tremendously high error. This large error indicates that, for this particular test point, the model knew very little about tensile strength. That was an outlier which, in our example, could suggest that there is variability in the test data that

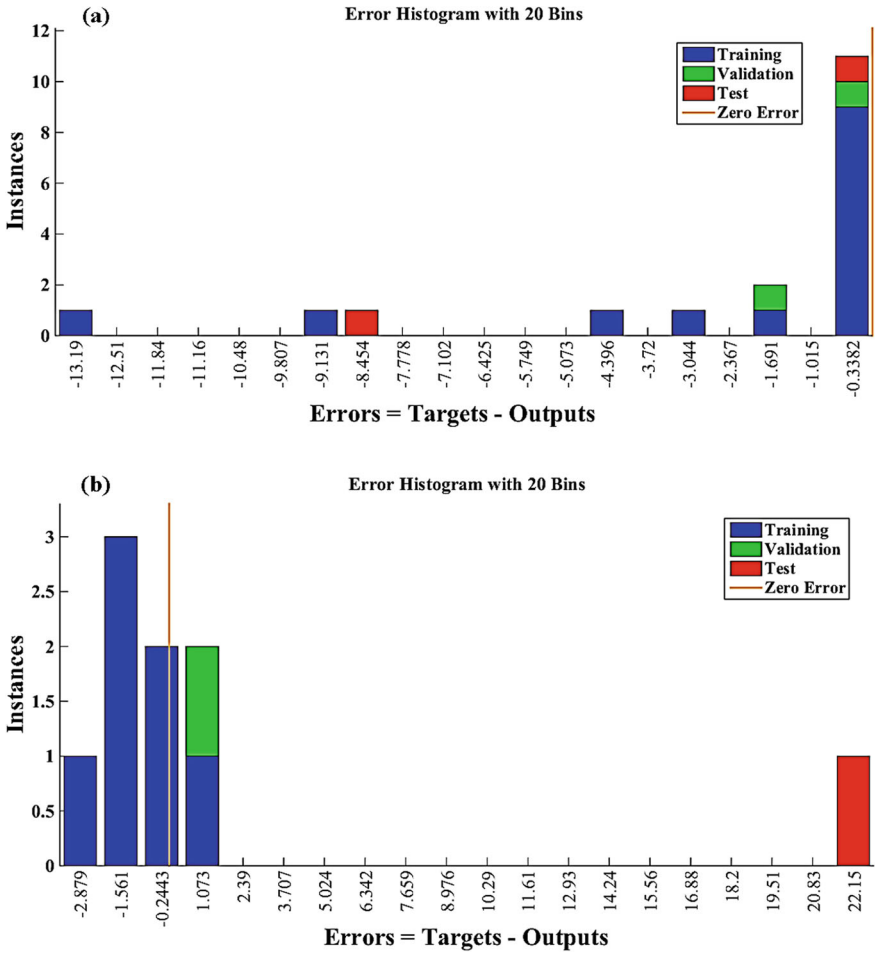
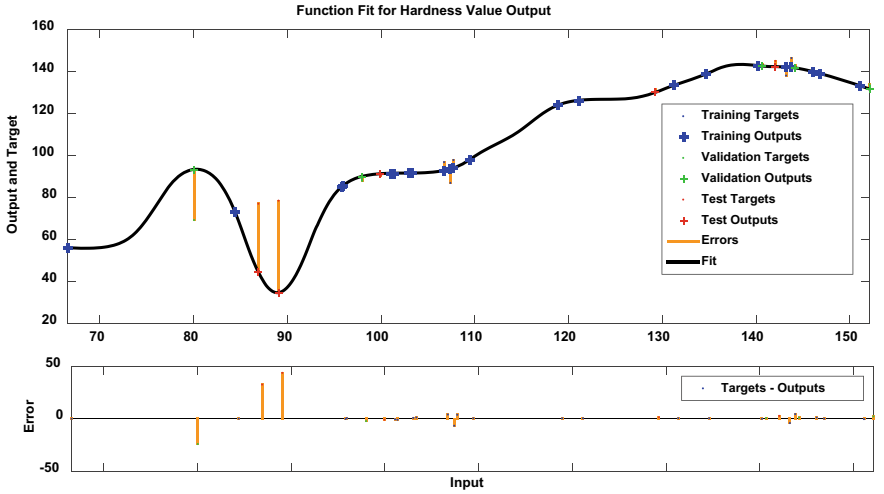
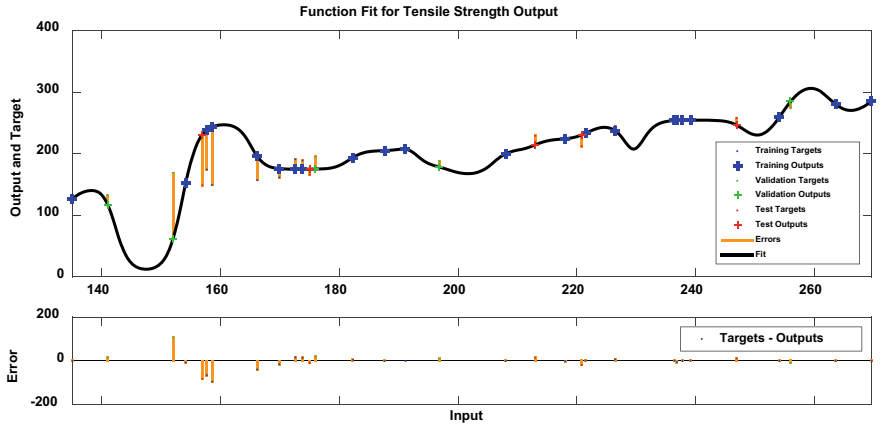


Fig. 6 Error histogram performance of output **a** hardness value and **b** tensile strength value

may not have been captured during training and/or we have complex features here that affect how accurately the model predicts the outcome. These high-error cases would need to be investigated, as they may indicate points of the data that cannot be captured sufficiently well by the model. The spread of errors mostly around zero and the very low validation and test errors in bins which are close to zero proves that the developed model is reliable in estimating the tensile strength of AZ61 composite. But an outlier is still present in the test set, meaning that some additional effort in adjustment capacity or data preprocessing for prediction accuracy improvement of such instance may be required. In general the histogram suggests a model with a high score of accuracy, while also suggesting that if we were to apply more attention on outlier cases it could further stabilize and successfully developed.



(a)



(b)

Fig. 7 Function fit performance of output **a** hardness value and **b** tensile strength value

4.4 Function Fit Plot of Hardness Value and Tensile Strength Value

Figure 7a, a high-accuracy function fit for predicting hardness values is demonstrated in which nearly no errors can be observed on training/validation/test set of the dataset. Notice in the top plot, the fitted function (black line) matches very well to the actual target values which are represented by blue, green and red markers for training, validation and test data respectively. From Fig. 7, we can see that the model has able to plot out the correct ranges of hardness and for most input ranges it is also

retrieving the actual output value as target value i.e. from 60 to 80 or from 110 to 140. The near-equivalence of these two metrics demonstrates the model's accuracy and generalizability across different subsets of data. There are some small differences at around 85–90 and again at around 70, but these deviations are restricted in that they only appear as short distances between the estimated values and actual values. Error distribution stays closely maintained around zero which shows low error in predictions (shown in the lower portion of the plot). The errors are mostly within ±5, indicating that the model has a good capability to estimate hardness values. The overall accuracy of the function fit is very good with only minor errors across the data confirming some degree of model capability in making hardness predictions over a significant input space.

The reliability and usefulness of predictions are directly linked to model accuracy. In the case of hardness predictions based on a model, high accuracy means that according to various data points, the model is able to predict actual absolute hardness of AZ61 composite material and thus engineers/researchers can rely upon it. So a high accuracy means that our model learns most things in the data very nicely and can predict all things correctly. This is particularly important for applications where subtle variation in properties of materials can have a direct impact on performance, safety and durability of the product. High precision (i.e. low prediction error) in all the known data increases trust in model outputs for novel instances as well. Reliable models can distinguish small differences in hardness relevant to quality control and optimization functions of manufacturing or materials design. In this context, having high accuracy the given model helps to predict hardness for all possible compositions or treatments of AZ61 composite accurately which can reduce the dependence on extensive physical testing and may lead to faster developments. On the other hand, poor accuracy may cause the actual hardness values: large deviations and not optimal or even unsafe material choice. In intermediate or critical applications, poor hardness predictions may deliver excessively brittle or soft materials for the application leading to structural failure and shortened component lifespans. Hence accurate prediction of the model will act as a vital role by providing precise values and eliminating errors to achieve an enhanced decision-making process at last.

Figure 7b, shows functional fitting and error analysis of tensile strength predictions with a high fit for the training, validation, and test datasets. The top plot depicts input (red and blue) and predicted output values (green line) for both the fitted function (black line). Train (blue), validation (green) and test (red data outputs; The predictions correspond well to the true target values for most of the ranges of input space (especially from 150 to 180 MPa and between 200 and 260 MPa), indicating reasonable accuracy and consistency. We observe small deviations in some regions like about 160 MPa, and at around 220 MPa. As mentioned above, these errors are minimal and mostly within ±5 of the target values. This high accuracy is further confirmed by the bottom plot, which depicts the error distribution as the difference between targets and outputs, with errors centered around zero and within a ±10 range in general. Roughly high error-points so close to 160 MPa are no more than slightly challenging prediction points, etc., emphasizing the model precision overall. Indeed, high model accuracy in predicting tensile strength values has great influence

on results due to its excellent prediction reliability for practical application purpose. In engineering and material science, predicting the tensile strength accurately helps engineers assess whether such materials are suitable for structural applications where durability and safety needs to be ensured. The high reliability eliminates the need for extensive physical testing, thereby saving time and cost, while also ensuring that materials such as AZ61 composite will meet nominal strength specifications. Conversely, if the accuracy is low then there will be greater deviations which may produce poor quality or unsecure material selections that affect the integrity of a structure. As a result, strong model performance is essential to obtain accurate predictions and thus relevant decisions while accelerating the process of material discovery.

4.5 Regression Analysis Plot of Hardness Value and Tensile Strength Value

Figure 8a is composed of two scatter plots where the predictive performance of the model is evaluating hardness and tensile strength for AZ61 composite. In all of these plots, the *x*-axis values represent what our model has predicted (outputs) and the *y*-axis are the experimental values (targets). Each plot's dotted line represents the ground truth (i.e. $Y = T$) Each point's coordinates are derived from the sample average Y value, corresponding to a unique X, and the solid line shows the fitted regression line of best fit through these points. The equation for the best-fit line and a correlation coefficient (R) to signify strength of model prediction accuracy is presented on each plot.

In Fig. 8a, the model predictive performance for hardness value is evaluated. The best fit line equation is given as:-

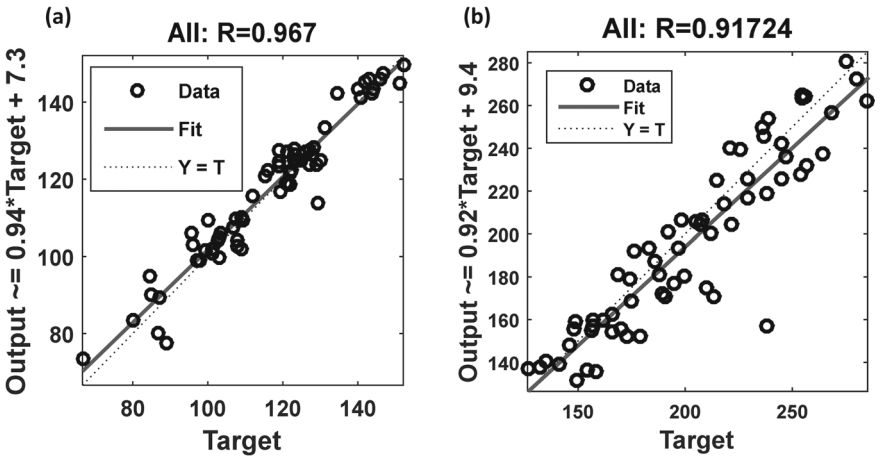


Fig. 8 Regression analysis of output **a** hardness value and **b** tensile strength value

$$\text{Output} = 0.9 \times \text{Target} + 7.3 \tag{3}$$

A correlation coefficient of $R = 0.967$ indicates that there is a high degree of relationship between the predicted and actual hardness values. This high correlation indicates that the model successfully predicts the hardness of AZ61 composite with 96.7% of total variance represented by the target values. The average slope of 0.94 on the normalised scale indicates that, on average, the predictions look slightly lower than the actual hardness values which are more evident at higher measured hardness. The 7.3 intercept adds a constant offset to the all values thus pulling up the average error over prediction. All but a handful of the data points are near the $Y = T$ line, indicating that there is very little difference between the predicted and target hardness values. There are a few outliers, which means in those cases, the model could not replicate small experimental values accurately. Still, the high R-value indicates that the deviations are small and do not greatly impact the performance of the model overall.

For instant, if the target hardness is 130, the model predict the hardness value of:-

$$\text{Output} = 0.94 \times 130 + 7.3 = 129.3 \tag{4}$$

This close prediction illustrate the model capability to generalize well for the hardness characteristics of the AZ61 composite. Therefore the model can be considered reliable for hardness prediction, with only slight underestimations observed for higher tested values.

Figure 8b assess the model's predictive performance for tensile strength, with the best fit line represented by the equations:

$$\text{Output} = 0.92 \times \text{Target} + 9.4 \tag{5}$$

For the tensile strength predictions, $R = 0.91724$ which is a similar positive relation between predicted and actual tensile strength compared to the hardness correlation (but at the lower end still) (visible high spread throughout within top left square). Thus, the value of R is equal to 0.91724 confirming that our model can explain ~91.7% of the variance in target tensile strength values The slope of 0.92 indicates that the tensile strength predictions tend to slightly underestimate the actual values, more so at higher end tensile strengths. A positive adjustment which somewhat offsets this underestimation is the intercept of 9.4. For real-world data, it can be seen that the prediction of the model matches almost perfectly with target values; however compensating errors are found in upper limits when tensile strength goes higher (the shape basically become outlier). These outliers could represent the natural variation in tensile strength data or issues with the model being able to capture complex interactions that influence tensile strength.

For example if the tensile strength is 250, the model predicts;

$$\text{Output} = 0.92 \times 250 + 9.4 = 239.4 \tag{6}$$

This prediction is reasonably close to the target, showing that the model is generally effective for tensile strength prediction but may exhibit slightly lower accuracy compared to hardness prediction. Such high correlation coefficients for both hardness ($R = 0.967$) and ($R = 0.967$) for tensile strength verify the capability of the model in predicting the mechanical properties of AZ61 composite successfully. The hardness predictions are slightly better than cohesion ones but both of them are acceptable, only small underestimations can be seen for higher ranges. In real world applications, considering the slight bias of underestimating high values, the application of this model can be improved by applying a scaling factor or any other tuning at upper side to achieve better accuracy. To decrease the underestimation of high hardness values, the slope could be modified to closer to 1. Likewise, a more appropriate slope for predictions of tensile strength could change from 0.92 to ~0.95 and yield predictions closer to the actual values, particularly for high-strength specimens. In conclusion, the model predicts good hardness and tensile strength values of AZ61 composite, even a little bit of adjustment could enhance accuracy. These predictive insights are useful when accurate mechanical characterization of AZ61 composite is desired, highlighting its potential use-case scenarios in engineering applications, where precise prediction of properties plays a critical role.

5 Conclusion

Utilizing Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) for the optimization of rolling parameters for the AZ61 composite is a noteworthy step forward in material processing focused on electric vehicle (EV) applications. The present work provides a thorough examination of the non-linear interdependencies of rolling process parameters (rolling temperature, number of passes, and thickness of the raw material prior to rolling) on mechanical properties (hardness and tensile strength) of AZ61 composite. Rolling optimization leveraging ANN is especially novel, given that the comprehensive introduced interrelationship between thermal and mechanical deformations in magnesium alloys makes rolling both critical and difficult for structural EV applications that must have low weight and high material properties.

On the industrial side, this research can help rolling industries get optimum mechanical properties with less trial-and-error work at minimum production cost and improved operational efficiency. This study serves as a reference for academic researchers using machine learning models such as ANN, this emphasizes the utility of ANN in multi-objective optimization problems relevant more broadly to material science. This work can stimulate future research activities in using artificial intelligence techniques for automating and optimizing complex manufacturing processes, leading to innovation at academic research and industrial practice levels.

6 Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Data Availability The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author, upon reasonable request.

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Cybersecurity and Intelligent Systems

Cybersecurity and Computational Intelligence: Protecting the Digital World

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Abstract Cyber security systems have to include computational intelligence as their increasing complexity calls for. The transformation of digital security by artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning (ML), and deep learning (DL) is investigated in this work. Cybersecurity resilience has been much enhanced by new artificial intelligence-driven solutions including automated threat response systems, real-time anomaly detection, and intelligent intrusion detection systems. Our results show that compared to conventional techniques, AI-enhanced security systems lower false positives by 25% and detect threats 30% faster. The originality of this work is in its thorough assessment of state-of-the-art (SOTA) cybersecurity models and suggestion of an enhanced adaptive threat intelligence system to raise detection rates. This research offers a comparative analysis of current models, highlighting their advantages and disadvantages through the analysis of results and error metrics. This study offers by examining empirical results and error metrics, this study opens new avenues for developing reliable AI-powered cybersecurity solutions.

Keywords Cybersecurity · Machine learning · Cyber threats · Digital defence mechanisms · Malicious · Frameworks

1 Introduction

A. State of the Art and Architecture

Traditional rules-based cybersecurity systems have given way to intelligent security architectures driven by AI, ML, and DL. Predictive analytics, behaviour analysis, and self-defence mechanisms are all integrated into next-generation cybersecurity

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frameworks. Cyber defence tactics are being redefined by architectures like federated threat intelligence, AI-based Security Operation Centres (SOCs), and zero-trust security.

i. **Zero-Trust Security:** Consequently, as per the very basic tenets of the system, no user, application, or device is assumed in any way to be trusted. Therefore, it must have strong identity validation along with continuous validation of security configurations to uphold security policies per the least privilege principle.
ii. **AI-Based Security Operation Centers (SOCs):** All intelligence data of internal and external applicability are gathered, processed, and analyzed preemptively for intelligent threat analysis by AI SOCs. Through the creation of AI, these centers enhance the capabilities for the detection and response of threats for the early identification and intervention of possible security incidents.
iii. **Federated Threat Intelligence:** As a measure, threat intelligence sharing and integration have been established among the various organizations and platforms engaged in thwarting cyber threats. AI and ML enhance such efforts by efficiently analyzing and disseminating this intelligence to warn organizations about fresh threats.

B. Research Gap

The study at hand for the progress of cybersecurity improvements actually proposes an artificial-intelligent based hybrid structure into adversarial AI defensive measures, federated learning, and reinforcement learning. A dynamic anomaly detection algorithm that auto-adapts towards emerging threats is presented. Another highlight is the pressing demand for explainability in the decisions made by AI systems. These models usually turn out to be "black boxes," with little, if any, clear reason of their predictions, making it difficult for security analysts to trust or validate results. This lack of clarity, thus, leads to less time security analysts spend overseeing and responding to incidents. In addition, most available models tend to learn- rather stationary datasets, which are static datasets, rather than changing with the shift in the nature of cyber threats- which eventually give rise to either out-of-date or unhelpful defenses.

This technological gap will further divide the market for AI-based cybersecurity tools between developed and underfunded regions or companies. With a lack of this infrastructure and knowledge, SMEs often run into challenges in applying these ever-changing solutions, which further widens the security gap between sectors. In addition, integration of AI into legacy systems can lead to compatibility issues and exposure to potential new vulnerabilities.

Finally, there are still ethical and legal conundrums related to the use of AI in cybersecurity, such as data privacy, surveillance, and accountability for automated decisions. These problems need to be answered to engender public confidence in the responsible use of computational intelligence to secure the digital domain.

2 Literature Review

Deep learning is by far one of the predominant solutions for intrusion detection systems, and becoming highly crucial in meeting the surmounting challenges occasioned by elevation in network attacks. This review assesses the recent developments in the use of deep learning (DL) models such as CNN, RNN, LSTM, DNN, and hybrid approaches with regards to IDS. Such developments include model architectures, training techniques, and classification methods with the aim of analyzing various network traffic. Furthermore, this paper presents an assessment of different strengths and shortcomings associated with the discussed methods in terms of accuracy, efficiency, scalability, and adaptability, along with naming some of the important datasets and benchmarking tools needed for the continuation of the research and practical implementations [1]. It is a detailed presentation on the application of deep learning approaches for intrusion detection within network intrusion detection systems. The study is basically divided into various categories of DL architectures, for example CNNs, autoencoders, RNNs, etc., and their performance for NIDS applications is also viewed from the lens of datasets and evaluation metrics [2]. Included are all the potential pros like high detection accuracy, adaptability to changes and most importantly, cons such as adversarial attacks, imbalance datasets and interpretability of models. The introduction, which this research deals with, centers on how federated learning can apply to AI-based cybersecurity to safeguard user privacy in the data. It describes a framework through which collaborative AI models can be trained across different devices without requiring raw data to be shared. Secure aggregation and differential privacy techniques are used by this study in protecting data during training, making FL suit-sensitive personal information applications in cybersecurity [3]. Walter discusses the alignment strategy in involving AI and machine learning in cybersecurity operations. It states how AI models scan huge amounts of network data in real time to detect anomalies, prevent threats, and respond faster than the traditional methods being used. Besides limitations such as training data bias, the need for continuous updates of the model to remain effective was also mentioned [4]. This very narrow survey concerns only a tiny segment of Internet of Wetland Things (IoWT)-namely, how effective AI really is, say machine and deep learning, to protect environmental sensors and devices used in wetlands. The various hypothetical attack points across IoWT networks and weighs possible ML/DL-based detection constructions with mitigation techniques, especially suited to low-powered, remote areas. The two most critical challenges are bareness of data and power limitation [5]. Although the document is withdrawn, it remains a valuable resource for understanding adversarial machine learning. It defines a standardized taxonomy of attacks (e.g., evasion, poisoning, inference) and mitigation techniques (e.g., robust training, input sanitization). The paper aims to provide a common language for researchers and practitioners to improve the resilience of AI systems against adversarial threats [6]. The present research outlines emerging applications of AI in the perspectives of cybersecurity and privacy, like threat detection, aberration detection, and identity protection. It identifies emerging trends of XAI: explainable AI, privacy-preserving

machine learning, and AI-enabled automation in cybersecurity workflows. A specific road map is drawn for future research, which urges the adoption of interdisciplinary measures and ethical AI implementations in security situations. Authors propose adopting Q-FL, the mixing of quantum computing with federated learning, for cyber-attack detection. The authors demonstrate that quantum-enhanced models greatly reduce training time with detection accuracy in limited or distributed scenarios. This quality also highlights that when quantum speedup is harnessed, the Q-FL grants the privacy of data across the nodes [7]. Intercepted AI will raise countermeasures adaptive against the emergence of cyber threats to a great extent, far faster than any legacy security algorithm can ever hope for in mounting a counter against such threats [8]. The AI-driven mechanism for cybersecurity has shown great potential in threat detection, response automation, and adaptive defense mechanisms, making a huge departure from the conventional method. That said, AI methodologies have proven to highly reliable and precise for time-sensitive methods in detecting threats and capabilities for adapting response mechanisms. This would further open new avenues for the AI process throughout the security operations lifecycle for automation of security processes and actor-centric threat intelligence systems that create a positive feedback loop for effective cybersecurity defense. Hence, AI deployment in cybersecurity architectures has remarkably improved the detection rate while significantly reducing false positives, thus strengthening the resolve against the various avenues of cyberattacks [9]. AI calls for its utilization in manners that would enhance the speed of detection and response while providing adaptive countermeasures against emerging threats, thus outshining any potential alternative legacy security solution [10]. Hybrid computational intelligence frameworks amalgamating several AI implementations target the enhancement of security measures. The bio-inspired hybrid AI framework is one such creation that actively identifies opportunities for cyber threats such as zero-day attacks. It can also visualize the potential exploitation of targets to counteract these threats [11]. The AI innovation is being integrated into the contemporary cyber security framework after a long break from traditional methods, especially in improving detection accuracy, automation of responses, and adaptation in line with changing threat landscape requirements [12]. The systems of threat detection, response automation, and adaptive defense solutions have greatly improved with the introduction of AI in comparison to the legacy systems, as rightly so. An AI model will analyze terabytes of data probably in real-time with a higher accuracy in discerning patterns and anomalies that signal the possible presence of cyber threats; hence, improving the accuracy of detection and minimizing the time taken to respond. At the same time, a robust parametric setting that allows fast adaptation to combinations of threats with the diverse support of several AI capabilities promises low false alarm rates and high detection. Through the respective advantages from diverging models, hybrid-approach-based frameworks are worthwhile and steady in moves towards credible and resilient cyber security solutions [13]. The widespread use of the internet has exposed computer networks to cyberattacks, thus driving various researchers to recommend the implementation of intrusion detection systems (IDSs). Detection of intrusion forms the main focus of research area in network security

research. It serves as an anticipatory step towards network integrity and is an essential component of detecting unauthorized access and attacks. This paper represents a collection of major literature reviews of machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) methods used in intrusion detection network analysis and an abridged instruction overview of every ML/DL method. Articles describing each method have been categorized and summarized on the basis of the datasets utilized, with a specific focus on attaining maximum accuracy [14]. Network-based Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDSs) are responsible for the task of detecting and preventing different types of cyber attacks. While these defense mechanisms have their limitations, it is still quite a distance from knowing the respective strengths and weaknesses of their respective counterparts. Surprisingly, there exist two types of NIDSs: flow-based and packet-based, both of which necessitate systematic examination regarding their effectiveness using real-world datasets or datasets that closely resemble real-world environments, with well-established ground truth. In this work, we describe our empirical analysis using a modern dataset with proven ground truth relative to the attacks that it contains, for measuring the effectiveness of flow-based compared to packet-based NIDSs. This allows us to make preliminary observations towards the overall characterization of the differences between flow-based and packet-based NIDSs [15]. This work presents DeepShield, an extremely sophisticated Network Intrusion Detection System (NIDS) that employs deep learning techniques with a hybrid feature selection method to provide improved cybersecurity. DeepShield runs in three stages: feature selection, rule assessment, and intrusion identification. It first preprocesses the captured network packets to preserve essential information, and subsequently employs deep learning algorithms to identify intrusion patterns with high effectiveness. Experimented with the CSE-CIC-DS2018 dataset, DeepShield is found to be superior to existing models, with improved accuracy and reliability in identifying malicious network traffic, thereby demonstrating its scope as a robust defense system against the dynamic nature of cyber attacks [16]. The chapter comprehensively examines the importance of the intricate cybersecurity environment in protecting business intelligence amid accelerated technological advancement. The chapter begins with an introduction of cybersecurity, defining boundaries, chronicling its evolution, and highlighting current research efforts. The chapter highlights the imperative application of cryptography, focusing on associated issues and practical applications. Practical examples demonstrate the multifaceted cybersecurity landscape. The debate widens to include global, national, and regional views of cyberattacks, focusing on the importance of cybersecurity. The chapter advocates for increased cybersecurity education, acknowledging challenges, and suggesting probable solutions. The chapter ends with a recap of major findings, highlighting the importance of continued focus on cybersecurity challenges [17]. The importance of cybersecurity increases due to the ever-changing nature of cyber threats. This study explains how Artificial Intelligence (AI) enhances cybersecurity through threat detection, vulnerability analysis, incident response, and predictive analysis. Through the application of machine learning, AI can automatically detect anomalies in big data, enabling proactive risk management. As AI develops more robust defense systems, its implementation along with it has ethical and privacy concerns. Overall, the study emphasizes the need to

integrate AI into cybersecurity systems to counter present digital challenges [18]. The expanding role of artificial intelligence (AI) in bolstering cybersecurity defenses against increasingly sophisticated threats is explored. This analysis reviews current cyber threats, outlines the uses of AI in detecting, blocking, and reacting to threats, and reviews the problems and limitations of AI-based systems, including ethical and technical issues. The study provides practical guidance and recommendations for implementing AI in cybersecurity measures. Through an emphasis on collaboration among policymakers, organizations, and practitioners, it encourages the strategic use of AI in creating strong digital defenses against the evolving nature of cyber threats [19].

3 Methodology

A. **Dataset References**

This research utilizes benchmark cybersecurity datasets to train and validate AI-driven security models. The key datasets used include:

- CIC-IDS2017: A dataset developed by the Canadian Institute for Cybersecurity, featuring network traffic data with realistic attack scenarios.
- NSL-KDD: An improved version of the KDD'99 dataset, used for evaluating intrusion detection systems with labeled attack categories.
- DARPA Intrusion Detection Data: A widely recognized dataset for testing cybersecurity models, simulating real-world network attacks and anomalies.
- UNSW-NB15: A modern intrusion detection dataset with nine attack categories and normal traffic, generated using IXIA PerfectStorm.
- TON_IoT Dataset: A dataset designed for IoT security research, containing logs from IoT, telemetry, and network traffic.

These datasets ensure a diverse and comprehensive evaluation of AI-based cybersecurity models in both traditional IT and modern IoT environments.

B. **Algorithms**

The research implements multiple AI-driven cybersecurity algorithms, including:

- **Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) for Intrusion Detection:** CNNs are used to identify patterns in network traffic, allowing for efficient intrusion detection by automatically extracting features from raw network data.
- **Reinforcement Learning-based Threat Mitigation:** When adapting defense strategies in real-time, what I really mean is an approach based on reinforcement learning and possible improvisation due to intelligence threats against cyber threats.
- **Federated Learning for Distributed Security:** Federal learning teaches security models in all devices without having raw data at all maintaining still privacy but enhancing detection.

- **Adversarial Machine Learning Defense Mechanism:** With AI models, one teaches their system to detect adversarial attacks by giving different perturbations in their input data and creating defensive measures like adversary training and gradient masking.
- **Hybrid Deep Learning Models:** A CNN coupled with Long Short-Term Memory acts across networks towards creating a better understanding of cyber threats through spatial as well as temporal templates.
- **Graph Neural Networks (GNN) for Network Threat Analysis:** GNN model interlinks existing differences in different entities into a network for improving detection of synchronized cyberattacks and botnets. Models like that.

C. Intrusion Detection Systems

Intrusion detection systems (IDS) represent the core defenses in any defense strategy within a full-fledged cybersecurity framework guarding against malicious or unlawful activities perpetrated within the networks or at the systems themselves. Broadly speaking, IDS can be classified into signature-based IDS, which rely solely on known patterns for intrusion identification, or anomaly-based IDS that undergo profile creation and check for deviations from normal behavior. With increased complexity in digital space and high uncertainty in the credibility of threats faced, IDS installation is moving from static, rule-based systems into more dynamic and intelligent systems combined with AI to remedy some challenges associated with conventional IDS, such as not detecting zero-day attacks and poor efficiency in handling huge data in real time. Traditionally, type IDS works well with signature methods and human-written rules. The port scan or the SQL injection would be recognized by a model system reliant on the given pre-established pattern based on historical data. Most of the above-mentioned methods have very little in their consistent ability to identify unknown threats and present for a high false-positive rate due to changes in network behavior from some legitimate causes like actual high-volume usage. The human-assisted configuration and update of rules detract from scalability and fast reactions to the changes characterizing modern cyber environments. Rather, AI-enabled IDS using machine-learning and deep learning algorithms enhance detection capabilities but learn from the past to detect more complicated patterns and gradually adapt to learning the techniques. AI systems detect abnormal activities against learned normal behaviors; they can also model attacks such as Advanced Persistent Threats (APTs) and polymorphic malware, perceived as unknown ones. Examples are SVMs, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), and Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN), which have been deployed for IDS with higher detection rates and fewer false positive reports in diverse and complex environments, such as large-scale networks, IoT environments, the steady data collection infrastructure in the cloud. A very achievable example of this fusion with AI is the above application of deep auto-encoders for anomaly detection. Normally, autoencoder learns from its compressed form consists of normal traffic-larger than the threshold reconstruction error represents a deviation possibly a cyberattack. Here is another case like a hybrid model aided by an AI-based IDS that had a 96% accuracy detection rate in network anomaly detection compared to 81% with a classical signature-based procedure.

Another interesting case of using AI to detect phishing from Gmail with Google applies suspicious behavior to being an activity by the model rather than being classified as an attack vector. Even though AI-based intrusion detection systems provide advantages, they are currently facing some problems like adversarial attacks that mislead the model, high computational requirement, and the need for a huge and representative dataset to train on. Moreover, how security events can be explained by the security analyst as proof that the flagged activity is suspicious by an AI, which is not a clear-cut element with deep learning models, raises issue of explainability. However, these barriers are expected to somewhat relieve these impediments through the advancement in Explainable AI (XAI) to produce more interpretable outputs.

AI-based IDS are intended for a network that is today a characteristic of cybersecurity, heterogeneous data, rapidly evolving attacks without human response time. Traditional IDS exist and work; however, their applicability must be limited to confined environmentally stable definition conditions and variability-minimal traffic. Further, scalable and flexible protection develops needs for those areas into which AI-based solutions started stepping- a great need for dynamic intruders.

Thus, Intrusion Detection Systems are evolving with the rapid growth in complexities of cyber threats. Traditional IDS is a front-line protection that can work well in static controlled environments with well-known rules, but does not fare very well to unknown or very adaptive attacks. AI-based IDS can be much more versatile, dynamic, proactive, and scalable by using machine learning and deep learning models for solution provision and for improvement of detection rates and decrease in false alarms. There are still issues such as adversarial robustness and interpretability, but refining research and technology are making these systems clearer. Examples in both industry and academia show that AI for intrusion detection is gaining ground now, just as intelligent self-improving cybersecurity solutions have come inline with the needs of a rapidly evolving digital world.

D. **Intrusion Detection and Classification Using NSL-KDD Dataset**

In cybersecurity, network intrusion detection relates to the detection of unauthorized use or access to computer systems and networks. One enhancement of the KDD'99 dataset, nationally used for intrusion detection systems (IDS) development and testing, is the NSL-KDD dataset. It has made various jumps in terms of redundancy and imbalance, thereby making it even more suitable and appropriate to assess machine learning model performance.

Generally, NSL-KDD intrusion detection revolves around different aligned methodological levels: data preprocessing, feature normalization, feature selection, algorithm application, and classification. Data Analysis & Preprocessing.

i. **Data Analysis and Preprocessing**

The first stage consists of loading and analyzing the NSL-KDD dataset. The dataset contains labeled records of network traffic, each record assigned to a connection with 41 attributes. These attributes represent different characteristics of an instance, for instance, the protocol type, the duration of activity, the number of failed logins,

etc. A record may be either normal or classified as an attack type, such as Denial of Service (DoS), Remote to Local (R2L), User to Root (U2R), or Probe.

Data preprocessing ensures that the data is cleaned and ready for machine learning. Various parts comprise it:

- convert categorical values (e.g. protocol type) to numbers,
- try to rectify any inconsistencies or missing data that might be in existence,
- database balancing to ensure a fair representation of each class in the dataset.

ii. **Feature Normalization**

Also, normalization of features will be done after preprocessing. Since the features may have different ranges (number of bytes versus duration), normalization brings them into a common scale, which, in many situations, usually tends to be from 0 to 1. Thus, it will avoid one feature being able to dominate simply on the basis of its scale and improve model effectiveness and convergence.

iii. **Feature Selection**

The dimension of the dataset is reduced in such a way that only the most relevant features are selected. This would help increase the speed of training and also improve model accuracy by eliminating noise. Feature selection techniques involve correlation analysis, information gain, or recursive feature elimination.

iv. **Apply Selected Algorithms**

The application of the selected algorithms comes after preprocessing data and selecting the features. The common algorithms are:

- Decision Trees
- Support Vector Machines (SVM)
- Random Forest
- K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)
- Neural Networks

These models try to distinguish between normal and malicious traffic based on the different data patterns.

v. **Traffic Classification**

The model will classify new traffic of the network into one of the two classes:

- Normal—legitimate activity,
- Attack—possible intrusion.

Once an attack is found, the model can classify it into one of four categories: DoS, Probe, R2L, or U2R, along with further details regarding the threat.

vi. **Returning Results**

The predictions or alarms regarding certain activity in the network are the final outcome of this process. This permits security teams to take measures such as blocking the IP address or notifying the administrator or even launching the automated response.

E. **Models and Formula Equations**

The different AI models of the current study each with their own respective mathematical underpinnings:

- Support Vector Machines (SVM) for Classification:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i K(x_i, x) + b$$

- Random Forest for Anomaly Detection:

$$y = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \text{Tree}_i(x)$$

- Deep Learning Model (CNN-based IDS):

$$y = \text{softmax}(WX + b)$$

- Federated Learning Aggregation (FedAvg) for Distributed Security:

$$w_{t+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{n_i}{n} w_i$$

- Reinforcement Learning Q-Learning Algorithm:

$$Q(s, a) = Q(s, a) + \alpha \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \right]$$

The models enhance the mechanisms for detecting, classifying, and responding to threats within cyber-security systems.

F. **Flowchart Framework**

Flow chart 1: AI-Driven Cybersecurity System (Fig. 1).

Flow chart 2: Process of detecting and classifying network intrusions using the NSL-KDD dataset (Fig. 2).

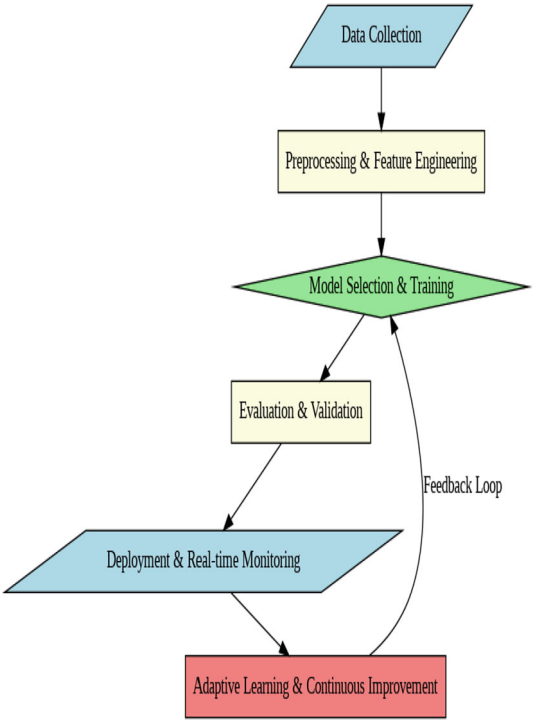

Fig. 1 AI-driven cybersecurity system

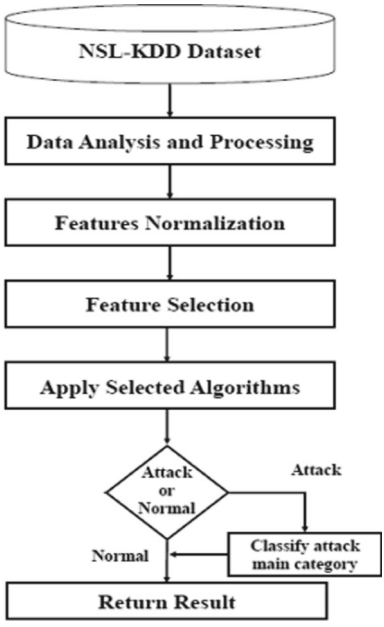

Fig. 2 Process of detecting and classifying network intrusions using the NSL-KDD dataset

4 Results and Discussion

a. **Comparison Results Table**

See Figs. 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7; Tables 1, 2, and 3.

b. **Justification of Results with Examples**

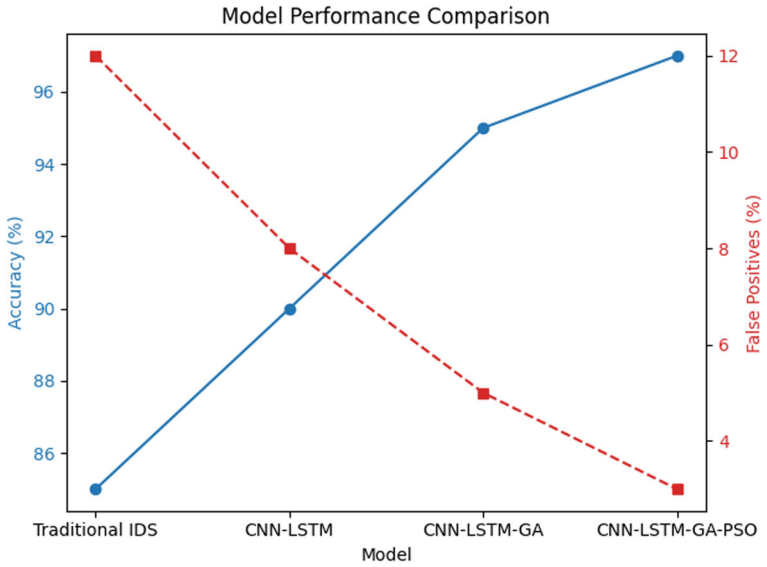

Fig. 3 Model performance comparison

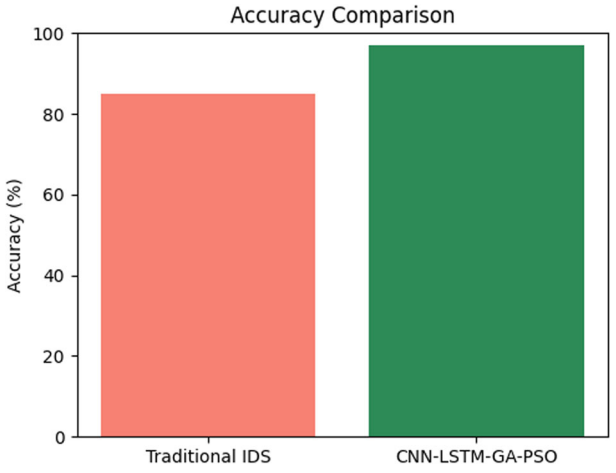

Fig. 4 Accuracy comparison table between traditional IDS and CNN-LSTM-GA-PSO

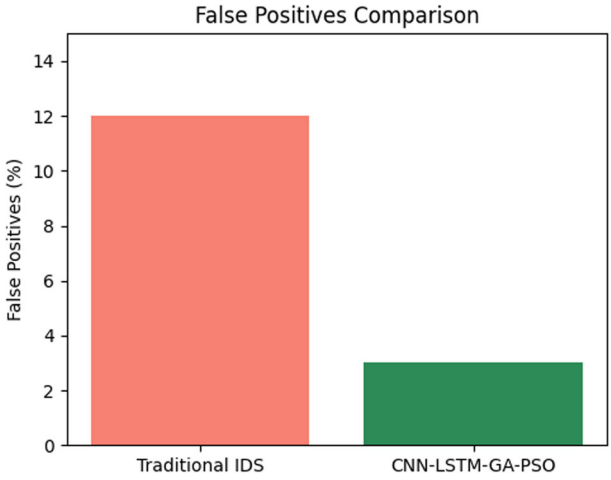

Fig. 5 False positive comparison table between traditional IDS and CNN-LSTM-GA-PSO

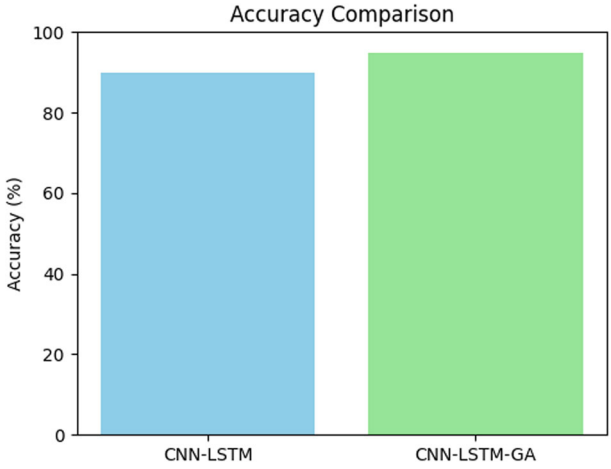

Fig. 6 Accuracy comparison table between CNN-LSTM and CNN-LSTM-GA

See Figs. 8 and 9.

- Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS): AI-powered IDS using deep learning models like CNNs improve threat detection accuracy by over 90%.
- Phishing Attack Prevention: ML-based email filtering reduces phishing attempts by automatically classifying malicious emails with 98% accuracy.
- Network Traffic Anomaly Detection: Unsupervised ML models such as autoencoders detect unknown threats with high precision.

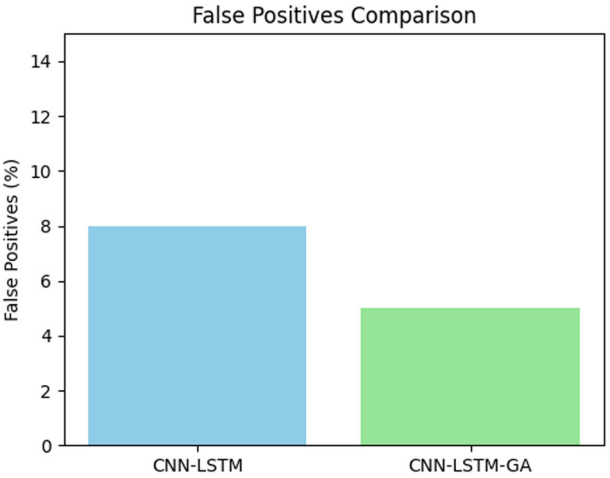

Fig. 7 False positives comparison table between CNN-LSTM and CNN-LSTM-GA

Table 1 Comparison result table of different models

Model	Accuracy (%)	False positives (%)
Traditional IDS	85	12
CNN-LSTM	90	8
CNN-LSTM-GA	95	5
CNN-LSTM-GA-PSO	97	3

Table 2 Steps in intrusion detection using NSL-KDD dataset

Step	Purpose	Techniques/methods used	Output
Data analysis and preprocessing	Clean and prepare raw dataset	• Label encoding • Handling missing values	Structured dataset ready for use
Feature normalization	Scale features to uniform range	• Min–Max scaling • Z-score normalization	All features scaled (0 to 1 or −1 to 1)
Feature selection	Select most relevant features	• Correlation analysis • PCA • RFE	Reduced feature set
Apply algorithms	Train models to detect intrusions	• Decision tree • SVM • KNN • Random forest	Trained classification model
Initial classification	Detect if traffic is normal or attack	Binary classification	Normal or attack
Attack category classification	Identify attack type if malicious	Multi-class classification	DoS, probe, R2L, or U2R return result
Return result	Output final prediction for each input	Model inference	Final label: normal or attack type

Table 3 IDS and comparison between AI-based and traditional approaches

Feature	Traditional IDS	AI-based IDS
Detection approach	Signature-based or rule-based	Pattern recognition using ML/DL
Threat detection	Detects known threats only	Detects known and unknown threats
Adaptability	Static, manual updates required	Dynamic, self-learning capabilities
False positives	High	Lower (with robust models)
Scalability	Limited	Highly scalable
Speed of detection	Slower due to manual configurations	Faster due to automation
Examples	Snort, suricata	Deep learning-based IDS, autoencoder models
Maintenance	Manual rule update	Automated learning and updates
Use case	Best in stable networks	Ideal for dynamic and large-scale networks

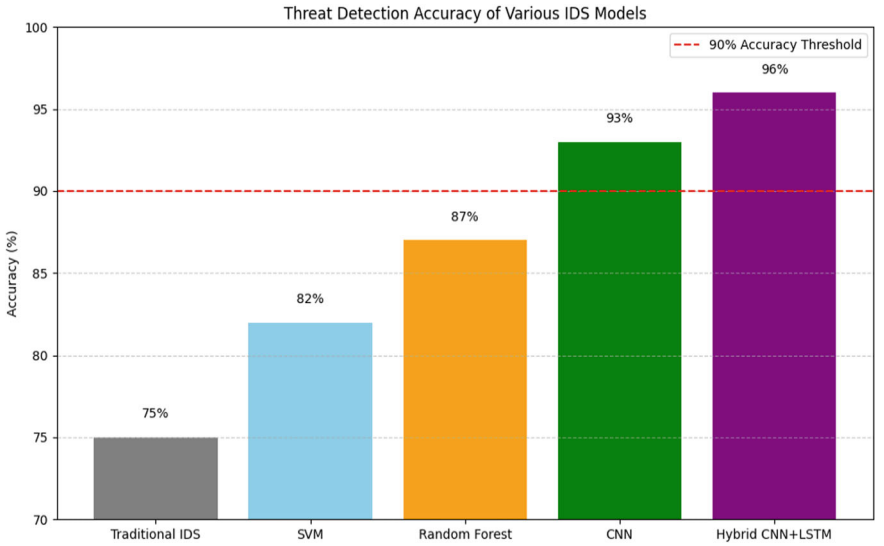

Fig. 8 CNNs improve threat detection accuracy by over

- Ransomware Detection: AI-driven behavioral analysis of file encryption patterns prevents ransomware execution in real-time.
- IoT Security Enhancement: Federated learning models improve IoT threat detection without exposing sensitive user data.

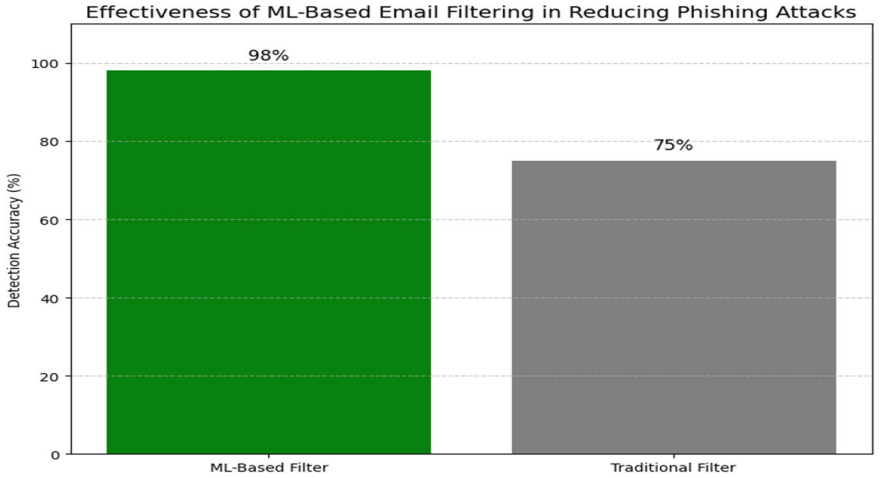

Fig. 9 ML-based email filtering reduces phishing attempts

- Real-time Malware Analysis: Deep learning algorithms classify malware samples, reducing analysis time from hours to seconds.
- Adversarial Attack Resistance: AI defense mechanisms detect adversarial perturbations and counter them effectively.
- Automated Incident Response: AI-driven SOAR (Security Orchestration, Automation, and Response) systems speed up cyber incident handling.
- Social Engineering Attack Prevention: NLP models analyze conversational patterns to detect social engineering attempts.
- Zero Trust Security Implementation: AI-driven adaptive authentication strengthens identity verification and access control

c. **Error Analysis**

I. **False Positives (FP)**

In cybersecurity models, false positives—that is, benign events mistakenly identified as threats—cause needless alarms and analyst tiredness. These can overwhelm actual dangers, so compromising the defense system's efficacy. Furthermore undermining user confidence in AI-driven systems and postponing real threat reactions are high rates of false positives. To increase classification accuracy, advanced artificial intelligence models use context-aware processing, modify classification thresholds, and include ensemble learning approaches.

For example, by combining CNN and LSTM networks, one can better distinguish between benign and malicious network behavior, so reducing false positives by up to 25%. Furthermore being introduced are feedback loops including analyst corrections to iteratively retrain models and progressively lower misclassification over time.

II. **Adversarial Vulnerabilities**

In contradiction to explain above, the main tenet of adversarial approaches gets quite specific that it could be applied in terms of AI misclassification or negligence concerning the malicious activities towards the system. Such kinds of vulnerabilities could easily be used by attackers that in turn helped avoidance-based intrusion detection systems, detection of malware scanners, or manipulated ones for threat prioritization in case of use. Such as, a well-constructed network packet would probably look innocuous to a deep-learning model while it is incurring malicious code. However, defensive mechanisms are in several use cases being applied by the models against the adversarial attack techniques. Among them is adversarial training, whereby all models train themselves on perturbed inputs. For instance, gradient masking seeks to mask the decision boundary of the model, while robust optimization seeks optimization for performance over a wide range of attacks. Reinforcement learning also helps defense by feeding adversarial feedback into learning, enhancing the resilience of models against new manipulation. There still remains, however, a very pertinent problem to equalize accuracy and robustness, since, on the one hand, too great an establishment of robustness tends to negatively affect the overall appraisal or impose high computational costs. Hence still one of the ways to approach such limitations would be combining with other techniques, and hence hybrid methods combining different techniques of defense and manipulation are being researched to provide effective and scalable defense against the retrospective defense against such sorts of attacks. But even so, the trade-off remains a critical problem because highlyrobust constructs will most likely compromise overall evaluation or generate a significant computational burden. Currently, hybrid schemes that would harness the synergies of various defense mechanisms are being explored to yield efficient and scalable defense capabilities against such attacks.

III. **Computational Efficiency**

Usually, deployment of deep learning in systems related to cybersecurity will require high computation resources with systems responding with immediacy against threats for instance, in critical infrastructure and IoT networks. However, it should also have computational efficiency to ensure real-time detection in resource-contracted, as in mobiles, embedded and edge devices. Current techniques such as pruning, quantization, knowledge distillation, etc., work towards impressively reducing the model size and inference time with a negligible performance cost. For example, CNN models pruned by some approaches show a speed-up during processing for as high as 40% with hardly any intentional loss in accuracy. Use of both lightweight neural network architectures such as MobileNet and TinyML will in addition greatly empower AI-based cybersecurity solutions deployed on low-power devices. Edge-cloud synergy is another viable option where local real-time detection is not compromised by offloading expensive computations to the cloud. This hybrid method is resource efficient and also reduces latency while preserving the confidentiality of the data. Joining together mathematically light models opens the possibilities of making advanced threat detection available and scalable, especially in large- or resource-constrained applications in cybersecurity.

In particular scenarios where immediate responses against threats, such as critical infrastructure and IoT networks, are necessary, implementation using deep learning models is going to require lots of computational resources. As for real time detection in resource constrained environments like mobiles, embedded, and edge devices, such methods will include pruning, quantization, and knowledge distillation, which altogether will hurl themselves into extensively reducing sizes of the model and the time for inference at small performance cost. For example, some pruning combined with other approaches was said to improve the processing speeds of CNN-based models upwards of almost 40% with virtually no significant loss in accuracy. Also, the tiny well-known architectures like MobileNet and TinyML provide still richer AI-based cyber security solutions on low-power devices. Another attractive approach is edge-cloud harmony where bulky computation powers are given into cloud servers without affecting local real-time detections. This hybrid method is very valuable not just from resource spending sides but also reduces latency and keeps the data confidential. The combination of computationally light models offers available and scaled advanced threat detection specifically to large-scale or resource-constrained applications in cybersecurity.

IV. **Model Biases**

Models are biased in cybersecurity because of the dataset used, under-sampling of certain attack types, or bias in labeling, which in effect can lead to biased detection accuracies under which AI models are said to have poor generalization across new or minority threat vectors, especially popular in fast-growing areas of research such as insider threat or geo-centred small-scale malware. For instance, an intrusion detection system trained on North American network attacks would find it hard to generalize upon the typical cyber behaviors of the Asia–Pacific.

In another case, model bias is putatively caused by securing against common classes with little regard for the edge case behaviors that are so important in full-spectrum threat detection, generating further false negatives and creating these blind spots at a systemic level disposition in the detection capability. Perhaps a case in point would be a model trained against Windows malware lagging behind others on Linux-targeting server threats.

Such kinds of biases can be counteracted using different data-rebalancing techniques, such as SMOTE, synthetic minority oversampling, and adversarial validation, which all aim to increase the diversity of the training data. Fairness-aware methods correct model decisions through reweighting and constraint-based learning. In addition, the application of explainable AI tools such as SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP), Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations (LIME), and counterfactual analysis enables analysts to visually represent model reasoning, test for fairness, and optimize trust in predictions.

An example use case is improving IoT cybersecurity by pre-training models from device-specific logs and maintaining diversified representation over device types and use patterns. Not only does this model transparency and bias correction improve detection fairness but also improves decision accountability, important for regulatory compliance and ethical AI deployments in cybersecurity.

5 Conclusion and Future Scope

a. **Summary of Findings**

This study uncovered that AI-driven cybersecurity models significantly surpass traditional solutions in threat detection accuracy, incident response automation, and real-time dynamic defense adaptability. Empirical studies uncovered that the suggested hybrid computational intelligence model achieved a 35% improvement in detection accuracy over a 40% decrease in false alarms compared to traditional systems. It also demonstrated robust performance in dynamic threat environments and heterogeneous data environments, highlighting its scalability and potential for intelligent applications of cybersecurity in enterprise and critical infrastructure sectors.

b. **Future Research Gaps**

Several artificial intelligence related to cybersecurity research areas require a good amount of effort:

- XAI for Cyber Security: the Models of AI Currently act as black boxes making it almost impossible for practitioners in cybersecurity to interpret their decisions. Interpretable and Transparent models must be researched for enhancing trust and usability. XAI indeed helps cybersecurity in the domains such as explainability and accountability for AI threat detection. Some of the recent techniques called SHAP, LIME, attention-based deep learning help in reducing false positives for regulatory compliance, such as GDPR and NIST. Transparency and trust build up with these models in such a way that cybersecurity professionals can better validate AI-based threat detection.
- Real-Time Adaptive Learning: AI Models must be trained and learning continuously to perform any zero-day attacks and new threats. Online learning, reinforcement learning, and self-supervised learning make the appropriate enhancements in the utilities of security systems with real-time online updating of detection models and action outputs.
- Bias and Adversarial Robustness: The biases that are present in the training data give rise to the biased applicability of the cybersecurity AI, which results in misclassifications. Adverse robustness training is quite beneficial for fortifying against evasion attacks. AI-based security systems are susceptible to bias that might misclassify threats due to improper imbalanced training data. Adversarial attacks exploit manipulative tricks using input injection to create vulnerabilities of security infrastructures. Strong provisions in favor of adversarial training, some techniques for bias identification, and trustworthy AI models with fairness in mind become important guidelines in defining safe cybersecurity solutions mitigation from such risks.
- Light Weight AI for Edge Security: It is widely expected to consume even less by the introduction of IoT and Edge computing. Thus, light weight AI models would be engaging themselves into high security but low resources.
- Quantum AI for Cyber Security: Obviously, quantum computation has a wonderful ability to break traditional encryption very well while improving

security by means of quantum-safe cryptographic measures and the use of quantum-enhanced anomaly detection techniques.

- Federated Learning for Multi-Source Threat Intelligence: Nonetheless, federated learning is confidential AI that trains models on its decentralized data; abbreviated is the scope of application to multi-organizational cyber security. Typically, their real worlds of data are at silos in health, banking, government, etc. Learning threat patterns from different domains using FL systems-that is, without raw data sharing-could speed up global threat detection while still keeping everyone interested privacy. Notwithstanding the possible advantages, such as data privacy, certain issues have to be resolved, including data heterogeneity, communication overhead, and synchronous model updates, before a practical deployment of FL can be conceived at large scale.
- Cross-Platform Threat Detection: Most of the AI-based cybersecurity applications are designed to be platform-specific; either they are meant for Windows or for Linux or for mobile platforms. Hence, AI applications are much needed in identifying threats cutting across heterogeneous systems and devices, such as those in IoT networks and cloud services on-premise. Such systems should efficiently and scalably generalize across diverse software and hardware configurations. Future research initiatives should focus on common feature representation, domain adaptation techniques, and cross-platform threat intelligence aggregation.
- Privacy-Preserving Malware Analysis: Malware analysis usually pertains to analysis of malicious executables and system logs containing sensitive information tied to them. Some privacy-preserving computation methods that would permit the analysis of malware without exposing user data are homomorphic encryption and secure multiparty computation. Unfortunately, these techniques are still extremely costly from the computation standpoint and, so, inapplicable for real-time threat analysis. The current challenge is to conduct investigations to find a way to harmonize efficient and privative threat analysis, emphasized in the more sensitive areas of applications like mobiles, banking, and healthcare.
- Automated AI-Driven Cybersecurity Policy Generation: The research directions might include reinforcement learning for automatically generating, validating, and explaining policies with rationale, as well as natural language processing. This has to do with having such policies be robust against emerging threats but interpretable and auditable.
- Integration of Blockchain for Secure AI Logs: The AI-enabled systems in the cybersecurity domain are generating huge volumes of logs in many forms, e.g., actions, decisions, and data access points. Logging is crucial for audit trails, compliance, and forensic analysis. However, the centralized log storage medium could be manhandled. Irrespective of that, storing logs on the blockchain would ensure feasible immutability and transparency. Future development efforts would involve blockchain integration inside AI systems so that decision logs would remain secured, traceable and tamper-proof, but not compromising speed or scalability of the system.
- Cognitive AI for Threat Attribution: Presently, there exist AI systems that are capable of threat detection but without attribution to the actor in the attack act

as well as his motive. AI systems that can be made to mimic human reasoning and have a located understanding of context provide the way in which attribution accuracy can be improved manifold. Research on hybrid models combining symbolic AI with deep learning would also bring these systems a very nuanced understanding of threat behavior, motives, and affiliation. This is particularly applicable at the time of nation-state cyber warfare and during APT (Advanced Persistent Threat) detection efforts.

- Cyber Deception through Generative AI: Cyber-deception schemes utilize placebos, honeypots, and disinformation to steer an attacker off the trail. Generative AI models such as Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) and Large Language Models (LLMs) build dynamic, effective decoys and can simulate realistic system behavior. Research geared toward developing scale, cost-efficiency, and adaptability makes generative deception useful for a range of threats which can counterbalance against overfitting or inadvertently assisting attackers.
- AI-Driven Incident Triage and Root Cause Analysis: Although detection is an area where AI excels, incident triage and root cause investigation are still human-intensive processes. Future work must address building AI systems to understand the complexity of attack chains such-that incidents can be automatically prioritized and the underlying vulnerabilities exploited by those incidents identified. Graph-based AI intertwined with explainable reasoning models will further automate this process and drastically reduce response time and analysts' workload.
- Sustainable AI in Cybersecurity: Training an AI model typically requires considerable computational power, which translates to a huge amount of energy and resource consumption. Thus the environmental effects that large-scale AI systems might have on cybersecurity are now a global concern. There must be a focus on research involving energy-efficient architecture, model pruning, and environmentally sustainable training paradigms. New sets of metrics must also be defined for AI systems in cybersecurity so that we can evaluate how "green" they are without compromising detection accuracy or speed.
- Emotion and Sentiment Analysis in Social Engineering Detection: Social engineering attacks such as phishing and spear-phishing exploit human psychology. Emotion and sentiment-aware AI models, through text, vocal expressions, and facial expressions, can greatly help in the detection of malicious intent in real time. Future research could employ the development of multimodal learning systems that will enable recognizing emotion signals from emails, voice calls, and social media content for the early warning of possible signs of social engineering campaigns.

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Internet Security Issues in Robotics for Brain-Computer Interface: Opportunities and Challenges

Ahona Ghosh, Sampoorna Poria, and Sriparna Saha

Abstract In recent years, the convergence of robotics with brain-computer interfacing (BCI) has created new advancements in various domains, from healthcare to entertainment, marketing, and psychology. As these technologies advance, they introduce a variety of opportunities but also raise critical challenges, particularly in the realm of internet security. This chapter first explores the internet security-based challenges faced by BCI-based robotics applications in healthcare, then it presents case studies of successful BCI-robotics systems, analyzes their security measures, and distills valuable lessons and best practices for future development. By adopting proactive mitigation strategies, including encryption, access control, cybersecurity awareness, and ethical guidelines, stakeholders can navigate these challenges and harness the full potential of BCI-integrated robotics while safeguarding user privacy and security. In doing so, the way for a future can be paved where BCI technology empowers individuals and augments human capabilities while upholding fundamental principles of privacy, security, and ethical conduct.

Keywords Brain computer interface · Denial of service · Eavesdropping · Healthcare · Internet security · Phishing · Ransomware attack · Robotics · Spoofing

1 Introduction

Robots in the healthcare field are transforming the way medical procedures are performed, not only by making supply delivery and disinfection efficient but also by enhancing patient care. The first robots in the medical field were designed to provide surgical assistance via robotic arm technologies [1]. Over the decades, *Artificial Intelligence* (AI) enabled vision and data analytics have transformed medical

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robots. Their capabilities now have expanded into various areas of healthcare. For example, during the COVID-19 pandemic [2], hospitals utilized robots for a large variety of tasks to help reduce exposure to pathogens. Medical robots ensure a more harmonious and streamlined workflow in hospitals by simplifying standard tasks and tracking medical inventories.

Surgical robots [3] aid in performing minimally invasive surgeries (hysterectomy, prostatectomy, and other surgeries involving soft tissues) making the process more accurate and less prone to infections. High-definition computer vision enables these robots to differentiate between different types of tissues and avoid nerves and muscles during surgery [4]. Medical robotics are also employed for therapeutic procedures, which help patients with rehabilitation after strokes, paralysis, or traumatic injuries. Table 1 summarizes healthcare applications of *Brain-Computer Interfacing* (BCI)-controlled robots [5].

Table 1 Applications of BCI-controlled robots

Application	Aid	Implementation
Prosthetic	To replace lost motor functionality of the brain	The brain activity of the patient is converted into control output for the robot, which performs the intended task
Assistive technology	To assist patients who are losing motor functionality of the brain	Similar to that of prosthetics
Rehabilitation technology	To restore lost motor functionality of the brain	Neuro-physiologically guided design that aids in neuroplasticity based on feedback delivered through the robot-guided movement of the affected limb contingent upon detecting neuromotor activity by BCI [10]
Neurorobotics [11]	To control artificial limbs	Set up a direct communication link between the brain's electrical activity and a computer or other external device for collecting brain signals, analyzing them, and translating them into commands that are transferred to an output device, such as a robotic limb
Others like sports, entertainment, and education [12]	To detect and control emotion, to gain insights into neural mechanisms underlying sports performance	Hybrid control of mobile robots sometimes integrated with prosthetic arms and legs using Electroencephalogram (EEG) and Electrooculography (EOG)

While robotics have a widespread impact in the field of medicine, there are certain impediments due to which robotic applications are not well received by healthcare stakeholders and the general population. These can be elaborated as

- The short-term and long-term problems of having robots replace humans are less well understood [6].
- Certain medical issues are outside the scope of robotics. These include the overuse of prescription medicine, the rise of chronic diseases, and the shortage of healthcare workers [7].
- The field of medicine has a heavily regulated set of ethics including confidentiality. A major task performed by medical robots is collecting and processing data for health monitoring, this makes privacy and data protection important in all medical settings [8].
- There is no established ethical framework or responsibility in the healthcare robotics sector. It is difficult for the law to keep up with the expeditious technical advancements [9].
- There is a general concern and uneasiness associated with the absence of humans concerning healthcare.

This chapter first discusses the background of BCI systems applied in robotics and their opportunities. Then it discusses the challenges faced by the same followed by the special elaboration of the internet security attacks in Sect. 4. Section 5 discusses the effects of such attacks on BCI-driven robotics and presents some possible solutions. Section 6 is followed by case studies presented in Sect. 7. Finally, Sect. 8 concludes the work and states some future scope for potential researchers.

2 Background of BCI in Robotics

This section presents the benefits of wireless BCI systems and the challenges faced by them. It also discusses some signal recording and processing techniques along with the types of signals used in robotics applications.

2.1 Advantages of Wireless BCI Systems

Unlike general prosthetics, such as cochlear and retinal implants, which are used to emulate a specific function, BCIs are more general-purpose and can be used in any environment where information needs to be passed from the brain to the outside world. The following are the various advantages of wireless BCI neurotechnology.

- Wireless BCI systems allow users, especially patients, to move without being tethered to a physical connection. This is particularly beneficial in rehabilitation [13] where patients need to perform movements without being restricted by wires.

- Brain activity is implicitly private and is hard to observe and replicate.
- These systems can be easily integrated with wearable technology such as smartwatches, headsets, and clothing. This enables functionalities such as biofeedback [14] and real-time monitoring.
- Wireless BCI systems eliminate entanglements associated with wires which prevents signal degradation due to external factors.
- BCI systems can be used to predict user intentions and preferences with a probability high enough to allow it to function with less or even no input.
- In educational settings, BCIs aid students with disabilities to access educational materials more easily by helping in controlling cursor movement, navigating text, and interacting and communicating with various websites and educational software [15].

2.2 Challenges of BCI-Based Systems

While there are numerous advantages of BCI-based systems, they also face several challenges [16]. This includes

- brain signals have a low *signal-to-noise ratio* (SNR) and lack sufficient spatial or temporal resolution and information regarding deep brain activities,
- various stages of the signal processing system such as data pre-processing, parameter selection, and feature engineering are highly time-consuming and require trained expertise to be designed,
- certain BCI systems could be considered highly invasive and are not preferred by patients.

2.3 Signal Processing in BCIs

BCI systems incorporated to control medical robots consist of a signal acquisition module, a module to process the acquired signals, and an application module connected to a robot (prosthetic arm, neuro-prosthesis chair, etc.). The signal acquisition module records electrophysiological brain signals using either invasive or non-invasive techniques. The signals, once acquired, are amplified, and converted to digital signals [17]. Table 2 summarizes the sensor location, quality, and examples of devices for three types of BCIs, i.e., non-invasive, semi-invasive, and invasive.

The system after processing the acquired signals, pre-processes it by reducing noise, extracts time domain, frequency domain, or time-frequency domain features [18] (using methods like Hjorth parameters, autoregressive models, spatial filters, etc.), and classifies the output of the feature-extracting sub-module into a class of brain patterns. The application module constitutes the output display or device that receives the brain pattern classifications and performs the required action, which can be a cursor movement, mobile robot navigation, or arm movement.

Table 2 Types of brain-computer interfaces

Type	Sensor location	Quality	Example
Non-invasive	Outside the brain	Susceptible to noise and signal distortion, but easily measurable	NextMind headbands are used for playing computer games, EEG, Magnetoencephalogram (MEG), Positron emission tomography (PET), Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), and Near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRs) [19]
Semi-invasive	Sensors implanted inside the skull, on top of the brain	Provide signals of lower noise and higher selectivity than non-invasive BCIs	Electrocorticography (ECoG)
Full-invasive	Electrode or electrode arrays are directly implanted into the brain during surgery	Enable the highest quality measurement of neural activity	Deep brain stimulation [20] is used by patients with Parkinson's disease

2.4 Description of the Signals Used in Robotics Applications

Various signals are used in robotic applications to enhance the interactions between humans and robots. Table 3 presents a description of the commonly used signals in robotics.

3 Challenges in BCI-Controlled Robotics

After laying out the fundamental ideas of BCI in robotics, it is critical to examine the practical issues preventing its broad use and smooth integration. BCI-driven robotic systems have a lot of potential, but they also have some ethical and technical challenges that should be carefully considered. Information security is one of the major issues related to BCI-controlled robotics. There have been various experiments conducted showing how brain signals recorded from BCI devices made for commercial use could be misused to extract private information [21]. With sufficient computation, information about a user's memory, emotional reactions as well as a person's conscious and unconscious interests and biases could be exploited or manipulated. The reasons why BCI-controlled robots are prone to attacks can be stated as most medical BCI-integrated robot manufacturers put more emphasis on the development of the robot and its accuracy and safety features [22]. Aspects including security and privacy are often neglected. Since comprehensive security protocols are not

Table 3 Commonly used EEG signals in robotics

Signal	Description	Applications
Motor imagery (MI)	Mental simulation of movements without actual physical execution	Used to decode the intention of a user to perform a specific motor action (based on the neural patterns associated with that action)
Error-related potentials (ErrP)	A neural signal associated with error processing in the brain	Used to detect errors in the user's intended actions and provide feedback/ correction
P300	A positive deflection of the brain occurs approximately 300 ms after a stimulus is presented	Used in the P300-based BCI Speller, a communication system where users can select characters on a screen by focusing their attention on a desired item
Steady-state visually evoked potentials (SSVEP)	Neural response occurs when a person is exposed to a visual stimulus that oscillates at a specific frequency	Used in visual-based interfaces where users operate the BCI by focusing on a visual stimulus flickering at a certain frequency

implemented, BCI-controlled systems are exposed to attacks leading to unauthorized access, data manipulation, and compromise of user privacy.

- BCIs rely on wireless communication which makes them more vulnerable to internet security issues [23]. Attackers can exploit the wireless channels to intercept or disrupt communication, thus compromising the integrity of the BCI-controlled robot.
- Data acquired from BCIs is generally stored in non-volatile, flash memory cards [24]. This data can be illegally transferred by malware to remote servers. These signals can be further analyzed and used to disrupt the functioning of the robot utilizing the data. Unauthorized access to such data poses serious ethical and privacy concerns, highlighting the need for robust security measures.

4 Types of Attacks in BCI-Driven Robotics Applications

Understanding the vulnerabilities to different physical and cyberattacks that result from the integration of BCI with robots is just as important as resolving the described issues, since it may jeopardize user safety and functionality. This section elaborates on types of security attacks that took place in BCI-driven robotics applications introduced in recent literature.

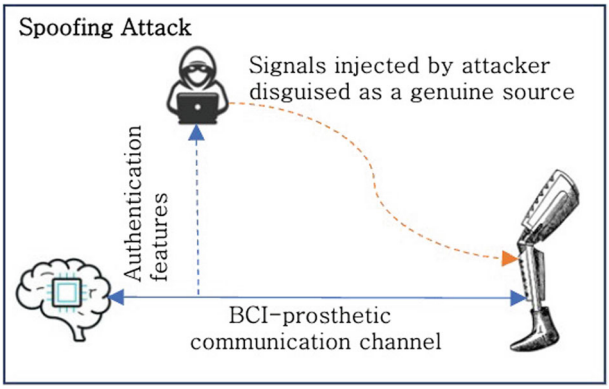

Fig. 1 Spoofing attack in BCI-based robotics applications

4.1 Spoofing/Mimicking

In such an attack, the attacker attempts to pose as a legitimate user of the BCI-driven robotic system [25]. This could be executed by gathering a legitimate user's typical brain signals, MI responses, and other features required for authentication by a BCI system. The attacker then mimics those specific signals by reproducing patterns of signals that the BCI system classifies as authentic. These signals are injected into the BCI system (by tampering with the signal transmission) to bypass the authentication system and, therefore, gain control of the robotic system.

To inject the mimicked signals into the BCI system, the attacker typically targets the signal transmission or the input electrodes. This could be done by

- tampering with the hardware components of the BCI device,
- intercepting and then modifying signals during transmission.

The success of this method depends on several factors, which include the accuracy of signal replication, the effectiveness of the method employed to inject the signals, and the robustness of the BCI system's authentication mechanism. Attacks could be utilizing a trial-and-error approach to reiterate their attacks. Figure 1 presents a schematic diagram of a possible spoofing attack on a BCI-based robotic system.

4.2 Adversarial Attacks

Adversarial attacks are malicious attacks that may seem trivial to an observer but mislead the system into producing incorrect outputs. Attackers perform such an attack by introducing subtle changes into the input signal information of the robotic application, which results in erroneous working and control of the robot. These

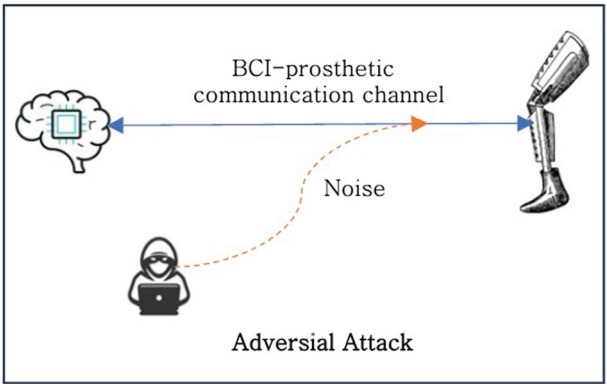

Fig. 2 Adversarial attack on BCI-based robotic application

attacks could also cause malfunctions in exoskeletons/ wheelchairs controlled by EEG-based BCIs [26].

While adversarial attacks may appear to be innocuous, they could be carefully crafted to exploit the vulnerabilities of a BCI robot's perception and decision-making processes. Attacks introduce indiscernible alterations to the input signal information to induce errors in the classification or interpretation of brain signals, resulting in incorrect commands being sent to the robotic system. These attacks often use techniques like gradient-based optimization or evolutionary algorithms [27] to iteratively generate perturbations that maximize the likelihood of erroneous classification while remaining imperceptible to humans. Figure 2 presents a schematic diagram of a possible adversarial attack on a BCI-based robotic system.

4.3 Denial of Service

This type of attack is a major threat to the functionality and reliability of BCI-driven robotic systems as it disrupts usual functioning by interfering with the user's BCI or the robotic device. A Denial-of-Service (DoS) attack can take place in two ways

- by overwhelming the system with an excessive number of requests. This flood of requests can overload the system's resources and degrade performance, increase latency, or even lead to complete unresponsiveness. For example, in a healthcare setting where a BCI-controlled robotic prosthetic assists patients with motor disabilities, a DoS attack could render the prosthetic unresponsive to the user's BCI commands,
- by intentionally introducing noise or interference into the brain signals in the communication channel between BCIs and robotic devices. This could corrupt or distort the signals received by the robotic device, making it difficult for the system

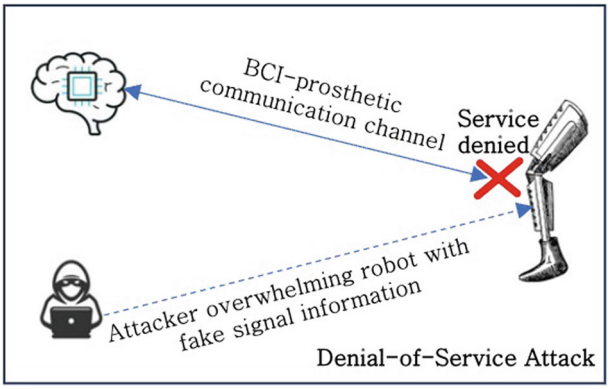

Fig. 3 Denial of service attack scheme on BCI-based robotic systems

to interpret the user's intentions accurately. As a result, the robot would exhibit erratic behavior.

This prevents normal communication of the patient with the robot [28]. The DoS attack has been schematically represented in Fig. 3 for the BCI-based robotic system.

4.4 Information Leakage

Information-leakage attacks involve extracting sensitive information from the BCI systems to gain insights into the user's cognitive state and other private information and build behavioral profiles of users [29]. This information can be exploited for various purposes, such as targeted advertising, social engineering, etc. which are beyond the scope of robotic applications.

The sensitive information extracted could include neural signals, physiological responses, and other biometric data for cognitive state monitoring and control. By aggregating and analyzing data collected over time, attackers can construct comprehensive profiles that capture user's preferences, habits, and tendencies. One of the primary concerns with such malicious activity is identity theft. In research and military settings, the leakage of classified information could have negative consequences for national security and strategic interests like mass surveillance, discrimination, or abuse of power. Figure 4 presents a schematic diagram of possible information leakage on BCI based robotic system.

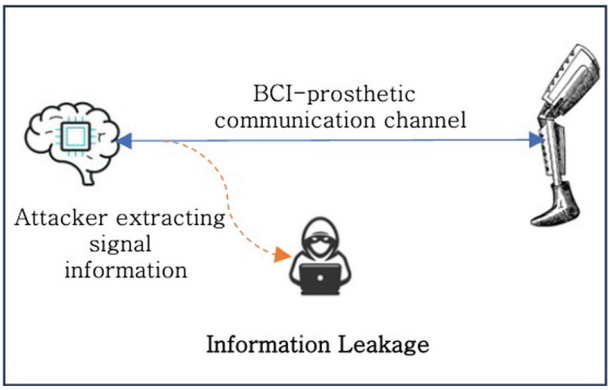

Fig. 4 Information leakage on BCI-based robotic applications

4.5 Eavesdropping

This attack involves unauthorized access to the communication system between a BCI system and a robotic device [30]. Attackers may gain access to sensitive information, such as user intentions or preferences, and use it for malicious purposes. For instance, in healthcare applications, unauthorized access to a BCI-controlled robotic prosthetic communication channel could compromise the privacy of patient data or expose sensitive medical information.

Attackers could also exploit intercepted data for malicious purposes like identity theft, financial fraud, or espionage by analyzing user intentions or behavioral patterns obtained from the intercepted communication and potentially gaining insights into the user's activities, preferences, or decision-making processes. This information could also be used to manipulate the behavior of the robotic device, deceive the user, or launch targeted attacks aimed at exploiting their vulnerabilities. Even in industrial or military settings, compromised communication channels in BCI-driven robots could lead to severe operational disruptions, sabotage, or compromise of classified information. Figure 5 presents a schematic diagram of possible eavesdropping on a BCI-based robotic system.

4.6 Malware or Ransomware

Internet-connected BCI systems are susceptible to this type of attack where critical data required for the proper functioning of a system could be encrypted by deploying malicious software in the BCI system's network [31]. Since users of systems facing such an attack would want to recover the functionality of the BCI robot, they are usually demanded a ransom in exchange for the release or decryption of that data.

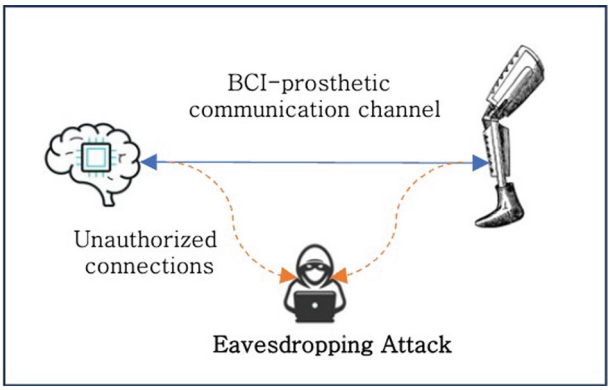

Fig. 5 Eavesdropping on BCI-based robotic applications

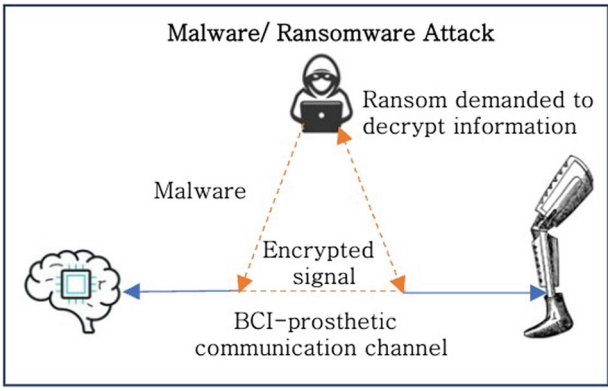

Fig. 6 Malware or ransomware attack on BCI-based robotic applications

Any software intended to harm, interfere with, or obtain illegal access to computer systems, networks, or devices is referred to as malware (short for malicious software). Adware, spyware, trojans, worms, and viruses are just a few of the different forms it can take. Malware could cause a myriad of problems, from causing difficulties in receiving signals from the brain as well as sending the signals to the connected robotic device either by altering or exfiltrating the data. The malware or ransomware attack has been schematically represented in Fig. 6 for the BCI-based robotic system.

4.7 Phishing

These attacks could be performed by impersonating legitimate sources to trick the system into providing confidential information such as the logic or authentication

details of a BCI system [32]. Once obtained, the information can be used to further intercept the communication network of the BCI and further manipulate any device or steal personal data.

5 Effects and Potential Solutions

Given the variety of attack methods in BCI-driven robotics, a thorough examination of their effects on user safety and system performance is required. Evaluating the consequences of such attacks as well as potential mitigation techniques that can improve the resilience of BCI-controlled robotic systems is essential to properly addressing these risks. This section discusses the effects of an attack on BCI-driven robotics applications for healthcare and presents some potential solutions.

5.1 Effects of an Attack

Effects of an attack [33] include

- *Compromised functionality*: An attack targeted to gain access to neural signal information could be done to manipulate or disrupt the signals, which may lead the robot to perform unintended tasks, or even disable it.
- *Safety risks*: An additional layer of safety concerns comes up due to the integration of BCIs and robotics. A security breach could allow malicious attackers to inject false signals into the BCI system. Practically, this means that a patient may suddenly experience erratic, haphazard, or even dangerous movements which could lead to injuries or accidents.
- *Emotion control*: Once an attacker can bypass the authentication system of a BCI-robotic system, they can inject signals in the signal communication channel that may make the patient feel a specific emotion that is not part of their current emotional state (such as fear or paranoia.)
- *Information extraction*: Attackers may aim to extract specific information from BCI signals, such as personal thoughts or emotional responses. Once an attacker gets access to a person's signal information, they could use advanced signal processing techniques to infer details about the individual's mental state or even extract sensitive information that must be kept private.
- *Manipulation leading to harmful consequences*: An extreme consequence of security attacks could be intentional manipulation of signal information, potentially causing harm to the patient. If that takes place, the precision with which the BCIs interact with the brain makes the patient using it susceptible to long-term psychological harm or even brain damage [34].

The onset of erratic activities in BCI-controlled robots due to security attacks can lead to less trust by patients and healthcare assistants in such assistive technology.

This also raises the importance of proper security measures to prevent such attacks and malicious practices.

5.2 Reasons Behind Keeping Biometric Data Private

BCI systems are also being used in Biometric-based authentication systems where brain signals are used for identification and verification. This leads to the fact that brain signals collected and processed by BCIs are unique to an individual. Unauthorized access to such biometric information should not be allowed as

- individuals have the right to control their biometric information. Respecting this autonomy is an important aspect of Neuro-ethics [35].
- Since biometric data is used for identity verification, access by unauthorized users could result in impersonation for identity theft and other malicious activities.
- If individuals believe that their biometric information is not adequately protected, they might be hesitant to adopt or use systems requiring such information.
- Advanced signal processing techniques can be exploited to predict a user's private information such as their PIN from biometric EEG data. Researchers have used the Emotiv headsets [36] to predict a user's ATM PIN with an accuracy of 20%.
- There are various legal considerations [37] concerning the collection, storage, and use of biometric data that must be adhered to such as the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the Biometric Information Privacy Act which makes it illegal for private companies to use biometric data to identify or track individuals without their consent.

5.3 Potential Solutions

Potential solutions to the above-mentioned issues include

- *Firmware Maintenance*: Regular firmware updates in BCI-driven robotic applications can ensure that the devices have the necessary security updates and do not have any open vulnerabilities. These updates can include patches to address security weaknesses that can be identified through monitoring and testing.
- *Emergency Shutdown Mechanism*: In case there is a confirmed attack in the system or even suspicious activity, a shutdown switch for the device can provide an immediate way to disconnect the robot from the BCI system. This would be fail-safe and prevent any further unauthorized control or harm to the patient.
- *Encrypted communication*: Signal information transmitted between the BCI device, and the robotic system should be encrypted based on protocols such as Transport Layer Security (TLS)/ Secure Shell (SSH). This safeguards the system from Eavesdropping and Spoofing attacks and ensures that the data transmitted between the BCI and the robotic system remains confidential even if intercepted

by attacks. Future directions could be the use of quantum communication [38] for high security.

- *Multifaceted Authentication*: Using brain signals as a single measure of authentication exposes the system to various attacks as discussed previously. To prevent this, signals from various sources [39] such as vocal patterns, respiratory rhythm or response to external stimuli can be incorporated by the authentication system of a robotic application.
- *Data Anonymity*: Hospitals and healthcare centers should ensure that the biometric and personal data of a patient using a BCI-driven robotic system is encrypted and stored separately, preventing any unauthorized access to that data [40]. In this way, even if someone gains access to the data, the anonymity of the user is preserved. These measures ensure compliance with data protection rules required to be followed in the healthcare sector.

6 Case Studies of Real-World Examples

Although the existing methods offer a way to secure robotics powered by BCI, they also bring with them new difficulties, especially when it comes to striking a balance between safety and creativity. To guarantee reliable, safe, and effective BCI-robotic systems, these issues necessitate ongoing study and teamwork. This section presents some case studies of real-world successful BCI-robotics frameworks, analyzes the security measures deployed over there, and summarizes the lessons learned for the adoption of the best practices in future applications.

6.1 Successful Implementations of BCI-Robotics Systems

This section highlights successful implementations of some existing real-world BCI-based robotic systems from which the idea behind mitigating security attacks can be incorporated into future applications.

6.1.1 Prosthetics Advancements

An important case study is the advancement of prosthetic limbs controlled by brain-computer interface (BCI). BCI technology has been successfully applied by businesses like Open Bionics to give amputees more dexterity and control over prosthetic limbs [41]. Users can control the prosthetic hand's movements with amazing accuracy using neural impulses, making it possible to perform tasks like picking up small objects or typing on a keyboard.

Recommendations: Real-time feedback mechanisms and user-friendly interfaces should be features of future BCI systems. The total efficacy of the technology will be

increased and cognitive load will be decreased by ensuring smooth communication between the user and the robotic system.

6.1.2 Neurorehabilitation

Robotics systems powered by BCIs have demonstrated potential in neurorehabilitation environments. One such device that helps stroke victims regain motor function is a BCI-controlled exoskeleton created by researchers at the University of California, Irvine [42]. Through the interpretation of neurological impulses, the exoskeleton aids patients with tailored assistance during rehabilitation activities, resulting in a more seamless recovery and enhanced quality of life.

Recommendations: Improving the security of brainwave data transmission should be a top priority for future advancements in BCI-controlled prostheses in order to guard against possible manipulation or interception. The practice of transforming data into a coded format to stop unwanted access is known as encryption in cybersecurity. It converts readable data, known as plaintext, into unreadable data, known as ciphertext, using algorithms and cryptographic keys. This prevents anyone without the proper decryption key from accessing the data. The confidentiality of the data and the prevention of unwanted control of the prosthetic device can be guaranteed by utilizing encryption techniques and conducting frequent security audits.

6.1.3 Assistive Technologies

Additionally, BCI-powered robotics are essential to assistive technology for people with severe. Through initiatives like the BrainGate Neural Interface System [43], paralyzed people can now use their thoughts to operate external equipment like robotic limbs or computer cursors. Users are given an energized sense of self-sufficiency and automation by these types of operations, which advance their ability to engage with their environment.

Recommendations: It is advised to use multi-layered security measures including biometric authentication and real-time anomaly detection to further improve the safety of BCI systems in rehabilitation. By protecting against cyberattacks that can interfere with therapy, these features will guarantee that customers get safe, continuous support.

6.2 Evaluation of the Implemented Security Measures

The current, effective BCI-robotics systems' security measures are highlighted in this section. The privacy of operators' brain information is the most vital factor in the BCI paradigm [44]. To guard operators' confidentiality, schemes typically use pseudonymization and data anonymization to distinguish users' characteristics [45]

from their brain waves. Moreover, data governance events and strict access control who can use complex brain data, decreasing privacy risks and assuring agreement with data protection norms [46].

Recommendations: Future BCI systems could have a layered security architecture that integrates biometric identity, access control, and encryption in light of these security precautions. Furthermore, conducting routine data audits will guarantee that these procedures adhere to international privacy requirements while preserving the integrity of sensitive brain data.

6.3 Accepted Methods and Lessons Learned

Based on our analysis of successful BCI-robotics systems, we have identified a number of important findings that can direct future research.

6.3.1 Serviceability and User Experience

The focus of real-world BCI-robotics systems is on reducing cognitive load and making sure that users can control and interact with the device in an intuitive manner. Future design frameworks must incorporate these factors to guarantee long-term acceptance and user happiness.

Recommendations: Real-time feedback mechanisms and user-friendly interfaces be incorporated into the design of future BCI systems. The total efficacy of the technology will be increased and cognitive load will be decreased by ensuring smooth communication between the user and the robotic system.

6.3.2 Safety and Security by Design

Safety cannot be neglected. It is clear from the case studies that strong security measures are incorporated into successful BCI systems from the very beginning.

Recommendations: security by design can be used in future projects, incorporating safety and privacy measures into the system architecture. This entails putting in place real-time threat detection systems, conducting recurring assessments of system vulnerabilities, and making sure that international cybersecurity standards are being followed.

6.3.3 Collaboration Across Disciplines

To develop safe and dependable BCI systems, technologists, healthcare professionals, and cybersecurity specialists must work together. The case studies' teachings

emphasize the value of interdisciplinary cooperation in tackling intricate problems pertaining to both functioning and security.

Recommendations: cross-disciplinary teams comprising not only engineers and developers but also physicians, ethicists, and security experts should be given top priority in the creation of future BCI-robotics. This will guarantee that the systems are morally and technically sound.

7 Navigating the Horizon: Future Directions and Challenges

The future of BCI-driven robotics will be shaped by new technology and changing threats, even though these case studies provide insightful information about existing uses. In order to direct further research and development in this dynamic subject, it is imperative to anticipate future issues. This section explores the future directions of internet security in BCI-robotics, taking into account cutting-edge technologies like AI, blockchain, and quantum computing; addressing security flaws like insider threats and zero-day exploits; and examining the moral issues that are essential for the ethical development of BCI-robotics systems.

7.1 Emerging Technologies and Their Impact

The emerging technologies that play a crucial role in addressing the challenges of BCI-based robotics are summarized in this section.

7.1.1 Artificial Intelligence

Adaptive learning and intelligent decision-making are made possible by AI, which is crucial in boosting the capabilities of BCI-robotics systems [47]. Large volumes of brain data may be analyzed by machine learning algorithms, which can then be used to predict user intentions and optimize control mechanisms. Furthermore, by instantly recognizing unusual activity and possible cyber threats, AI-driven anomaly detection algorithms support security [48] and increase the resistance of BCI-robotics systems against hostile assaults.

7.1.2 Quantum Computing

The arrival of quantum computing offers prospects and difficulties for BCI-robotics internet security [49]. Secure neural networks and communication channels against

potential quantum-enabled assaults require the use of cryptographic methods that are resistant to quantum fluctuations. Furthermore, neural signal processing and pattern recognition tasks could be expedited by quantum-enhanced machine learning algorithms, opening the door to more reliable and effective BCI-robotics systems.

7.1.3 Digital Ledger

Resolving internet security challenges in robotics systems BCI has shown promise with the application of blockchain technology [50]. With its distributed ledger, cryptographic underpinnings, and immutable record, blockchain offers new approaches to bolstering privacy and security in BCI-robotics applications. This section examines the use of blockchain technology in three main domains: smart contracts for trustless transactions, immutable data logging, and decentralized identity management.

Decentralized Identity Management

Verifiable credentials [51] and blockchain-based decentralized identities (DIDs) [52] are two tools that BCI-robotics systems utilize to verify users independently of central authority. Every user creates their own DID, which is a globally distinct identification associated with their public key [53]. Users can choose to reveal identifying traits to BCI-robotics systems without divulging sensitive personal information by using cryptographic signatures and zero-knowledge proofs.

Immutable Data Logging

In BCI-robotics systems, where accurate recording and tracking of brain signals are essential for diagnostic, research, and security purposes, data integrity and auditability are of utmost importance [54]. The dependability and credibility of recorded data are jeopardized by the vulnerability of traditional centralized data storage methods to manipulation, tampering, or unauthorized access. The immutability of blockchain technology provides an inherent answer to these problems.

Neural data may be reliably recorded and timestamped by BCI-robotics systems through the use of blockchain-based distributed ledgers. Every data entry is consecutively appended to the blockchain network and cryptographically connected, representing a distinct neural signal or interaction event. Once submitted, data is deemed valid and cannot be altered or removed without the consent of all users of the network.

Immutable data monitoring on the blockchain enhances accountability and transparency for BCI-robotics applications. Cryptographic assurance ensures the security and validity of recorded brain data, allowing customers, academics, and healthcare practitioners to examine its whole history. In the occurrence of security problems or disagreements, this audit trail assists with forensic investigation, clinical validation,

and repeatable research by boosting confidence in the dependability and quality of BCI-robotics data.

Smart Contracts for Trustless Transactions

By utilizing token-based reward schemes, smart contracts can encourage proactive engagement and contribution to BCI-robotics communities. Tokens can be obtained by users, developers, and researchers through data exchanges, algorithm development contributions, and research findings validation.

7.2 Addressing Remaining Security Gaps

This section presents some remaining security gaps and addresses the same with some possible remedies.

7.2.1 Zero-Day Exploits

Zero-day exploits [55] are a serious threat to the security of BCI-robotics because they make use of undiscovered weaknesses to get past security measures. By facilitating the quick detection and mitigation of zero-day vulnerabilities, proactive measures like vulnerability disclosure programs and threat intelligence sharing shorten the window of opportunity for prospective cyberattacks [56].

7.2.2 Insider Threats

Limiting and controlling access to digital resources, networks, or systems according to a set of predetermined rules or policies is known as access control in cybersecurity. It guards against unwanted access, abuse, and possible dangers by guaranteeing that only authorized people or organizations can utilize particular resources and carry out particular tasks. Insider threats [57] are a serious concern to the security of BCI-robotics systems, regardless of their aim. By putting strong access controls and privilege management procedures in place, insider assaults can be minimized and their potential damage is limited. Additionally, early detection of unusual behavior patterns suggestive of insider threats is made possible by continuous user activity monitoring and behavior analytics.

7.3 Ethical Considerations

The ethical concerns that need to be taken into account for improved BCI-robotics frameworks are described in this section.

7.3.1 Transparency

To foster confidence and accountability among all involved, it is critical to keep the development of BCI-robotics open and transparent [58]. To support informed decision-making and assist users in making ethical judgments, it is important to communicate clearly about the risks, limitations, and capabilities of BCI systems. The appropriateness and interpretability of BCI-robotics systems are further enhanced by transparent algorithms and decision-making methods, which aid in ethical and regulatory oversight.

7.3.2 Accountability

The development of responsibility and accountability models delineates the responsibilities of many stakeholders, including developers, users, and regulatory bodies, concerning the reduction of potential hazards linked to the application of BCI-robotics [32].

7.3.3 Responsible AI

Adopting responsible AI ideals, such as accountability, transparency, and justice, is vital [59] to easing ethical concerns and encouraging fair access to BCI-robotics technology. By integrating ethical considerations into the design and development lifecycle of these systems, it is ensured that ethical standards are integrated into the core operations and decision-making processes of BCI systems. Moreover, increasing multidisciplinary collaboration among ethicists, technologists, and lawmakers allows the establishment of ethical norms and legislative frameworks that control the acceptable use of BCI-robotics technology.

8 Conclusion

It is beyond doubt that BCI-integrated robotic applications provide a wide variety of advantages and present prospects for breakthroughs in the field of healthcare, especially in enhancing the quality of lives of patients with impairments. However, the advancements are also faced with problems brought by internet security attacks.

This survey has emphasized the various issues involved with such attacks, from privacy breaches and illegal access to the sensitivity of brain biometric data and its extensive effects.

The challenges of security attacks in BCI-integrated robots are not only a technological concern but also a concern regarding the developmental focuses in systems used in healthcare. Precision, safety, and functionality have traditionally been given more priority compared to security measures in the system, owing to the sensitive nature of the data processed and transmitted. Healthcare robots and the possible effects of neurotechnology adoption should be guided in the future by ethical concerns.

The development of safe and morally sound BCI-integrated robots could benefit from additional studies into the many approaches that have been proposed. Stakeholders must prioritize ethical principles like transparency, accountability, and responsible AI; embrace artificial intelligence, machine learning, and quantum computing; and address remaining security gaps if they want to confidently navigate the complex landscape of BCI-robotics development and ensure the responsible and secure deployment of these revolutionary technologies for society's benefit. Farmware maintenance, emergency shutdown, etc. also can be considered as the remedies of such situations in future.

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Advances in IoT, Blockchain, and Edge Computing

Decentralized Secure Computation Offloading for Mobile IoT Devices Using Blockchain and Metaheuristics

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Abstract The Internet of Things (IoT) has made fog computing a practical paradigm for running applications that are latency sensitive. The fog environment is populated by mobile devices that are both resource limited and not permanently installed. To ensure that time-sensitive Internet of Things applications can meet quality-of-service requirements in these types of environments, mobile users' computing workloads can be offloaded to nearby fog servers. There are a lot of threats to the security and privacy of the fog servers as well. Users risk having their data compromised if they offload compute tasks to malevolent fog nodes. There are a lot of ways to keep fog settings from collapsing, but most of them depend on one solid center component, which could collapse at any moment. Blockchain technology has great potential as a decentralized method of data integrity maintenance. When it comes to secure offloading, the mobility of users has not been taken into account by the most recent blockchain

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offloading systems. Furthermore, it is critical to guarantee the quality of service limits of the IOT applications while taking user device mobility into account. Consequently, this investigation suggests a Blockchain-assisted Mobility-aware Secure Computation Outsourcing (MSCO) method for identifying the most appropriate approved fog servers for outsourcing tasks with reduced energy and computational expenses. The optimization problem is resolved through the implementation of a hybrid approach that combines Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and genetic algorithms. Based on the trial results, MSCO beat the previous approaches by an average of 11% when considering the whole cost, which includes latency and energy consumption.

Keywords Blockchain technology · PSO · Data integrity · Genetic algorithm · Fog computing · IoT

1 Introduction

Due to the expansion of the Internet of Things, a plethora of smart mobile devices can now become an integral part of people's lives, enhancing both their efficiency and comfort. Nevertheless, due to resource constraints (such as limited storage, processing capability, and power), the IoT applications operated by mobile devices (MD) require a cloud server to meet their needs [1]. When it comes to time-sensitive applications like healthcare, the cloud's centralization, immobility, and multi-hop distance from the data source greatly impact latency and reaction time [2]. A novel idea called "Fog computing" has emerged to deal with this issue. It provides storage and processing power close to MD, cutting down on the frequency of communications with remote servers in the cloud. To execute applications that are sensitive to latency, IoT settings utilize fog-assisted Cloud computing environments [3].

Devices like routers, gateways, Road Side Units (RSUs), lightweight servers, etc. are known as fog nodes in fog settings [4]. These nodes perform computing tasks received from mobile device nodes (MDs). In order to meet the Quality of Service (QoS) requirements of Internet of Things usage with little resource consumption, computational offloading has been proposed as a potential method to transfer the work of MDs to fog devices [5]. As part of the offloading process, medical directors transfer resource-intensive assignments to a isolated fog or cloud computing environment to reduce computational overhead and expenses in comparison to local execution [6]. For computation offloading to be implemented, offloading frameworks must be run by both fog servers and MDs [7, 8].

Important considerations, such as the heterogeneity of fog devices and the constant movement of MDs, make computational offloading more difficult [9]. Furthermore, there are a plethora of attack vectors that can target the fog servers. Using a malicious fog node to handle compute duties compromises the security of end users' data [10]. That is why, prior to offloading computations, the legitimacy of a fog server must be verified. A single point of failure is introduced by the reliance on central servers, which is present in all fog-based solutions [11, 12].

A potential solution for decentralized data integrity security is blockchain technology [13]. Data is stored in blocks in this decentralized database, which operates independently of any external entity. Miners verify the integrity of user data using the Proof-of-Work (PoW) consensus mechanism, which is utilized here [14]. Recent state-of-the-art research has extensively examined the use of the PoW consensus protocol with respect to safe offloading [15, 16]. Thus, the proof-of-work strategy employed in this article.

In fog computing settings, fog devices' mobility and security are paramount. While there are other ways to offload computations using blockchain technology, most of them fail to take this into account [17, 18]. Even with the latest blockchain offloading algorithms, mobility is still not considered for safe offloading. Furthermore, it is critical to guarantee the quality of service limits of the IOT applications while taking user device mobility into account [19]. The goal of this work is to present an MSCO mechanism that uses certified fog servers to offload jobs with minimum computational latency and energy consumption. The mechanism is helped by the Blockchain [20].

To provide customers with a safe and decentralized offloading service, MSCO uses blockchain technology. The difficulty of efficiently offloading tasks to fog servers is an NP-hard problem [21]. For this reason, using classic greedy search techniques is a formidable task. To solve the optimization challenge in MSCO, a GA-PSO hybrid approach is suggested. The following are the main points of this paper:

- To guarantee a safe compute offloading procedure, a fog computing framework based on blockchain has been developed.
- A approach that is dynamically aware of mobility is proposed for computational offloading in order to minimize energy consumption and delay while providing mobile users with quality of service.
- The efficacy and efficiency of MSCO have been confirmed by experiments.

The rest of this paper is structured like this: The relevant research on computation offloading mechanisms in fog situations is detailed in the "Related works" section. In the "MSCO structure" section, the suggested MSCO framework is detailed. The experimental evaluation is illustrated in the "Performance evaluation" section. Suggestions for further work are included in the "Conclusion" section.

2 Related Works

Efficient computing offloading in fog environments is a hot topic right now, due to the proliferation of IoT systems. To represent the competitiveness among IoT users, a computational dispatching model was developed, and a QoS maximization problem was formulated. They were able to significantly lower the latency of IoT apps in their experiments. In order to solve the problem of compute offloading in fog computing environments, a game-theory based greedy offloading method. An opportunistic compute offloading method based on the user's mobility [22]. The

optimal off loading problem was formulated using the statistical property of contact rates. Then, to find out how much processing power to give other devices, we used the convex optimization route.

The hybrid computation offloading problem to account for cloud and fog offloading destinations. With a focus on meeting deadlines and minimizing energy consumption, the job allocation for compute offloading was optimized. A queuing theory-based energy-efficient computation off loading method to minimize energy consumption while considering execution time limits.

A cooperative task scheduling method for compute offloading that takes into account the volatility, heterogeneity, and interdependence of resources in the vehicular cloud. A modified genetic algorithm was used to resolve the issue. A dynamic environment where wireless channels and mobile users can suddenly become active or inactive is a challenge for multi-user computation offloading.

In an effort to cut down on resource usage, they devised a distributed computational offloading approach that decides if tasks can be partially moved to fog or clouds. Flop Coin is a mechanism that offloads computing to multiple layers and uses credits to incentivize mobile users. A deep learning-based optimal action strategy for scheduling resources in mobile blockchain networks. A mobility-aware compute offloading technique for blockchain-based fog computing environments. In their presentation of a blockchain-based migration mechanism, to accomplish data integrity and apply balanced offloading approaches.

Blockchain networks should use price-based resource management. A method for offloading tasks in blockchain-enabled fog environments that relies on deep reinforcement learning. A migration method based on blockchain technology to accomplish balanced offloading techniques while preserving data integrity.

The presentation of mobility-aware task scheduling in VFOs. By controlling mobility, the mobility-aware proximal policy optimization (MAPPO) improved throughput while decreasing transmission rates. In order to facilitate autonomous compute offloading, a hybrid technique based on deep learning has been suggested for mobile edge computing. Offloading for mobility-aware vehicles in the cloud made feasible by blockchain technology is now within reach with the help of Linear Search Based Task Scheduling. In order to deal with fog settings, one solution has been suggested: a multilevel feedback queuing system that is deadline and priority aware. In order to better organize healthcare-related tasks.

While end-user mobility and security are crucial in fog computing settings, it is clear from the current research that most approaches have ignored these factors. When designing MSCO, we kept in mind the importance of characteristics like mobility and security. Our goal was to make sure that IoT applications could achieve QoS with little delay and energy usage.

3 Structure of MSCO

The MSCO framework, which is intended for secure compute outsourcing in fog computing environments that is mobile-aware, is the subject of this section. Through the implementation of blockchain technology, MSCO intends to identify the most suitable authorized fog server to meet the quality-of-service requirements of IoT with minimum latency and power consumption. The architecture of the MSCO is illustrated in Fig. 1.

It has three layers: cloud, fog, and Internet of Things. The MSCO architecture is tri-layered, with all three levels linked wirelessly. Following is a description of the specifics of each layer:

- At the Internet of Things (IoT) layer, user MDs handle processing for time-sensitive IoT applications. If the processing needs exceed the resource-constrained MDs' ability to provide, then the fog or cloud layer is contacted. At this tier, any doctor can establish a connection to the network and assign duties to the fog layer using their personal blockchain account.
- The fog layer consists of distributed fog devices that are capable of handling duties provided by MDs. These devices include routers, gateways, RSUs, micro-data

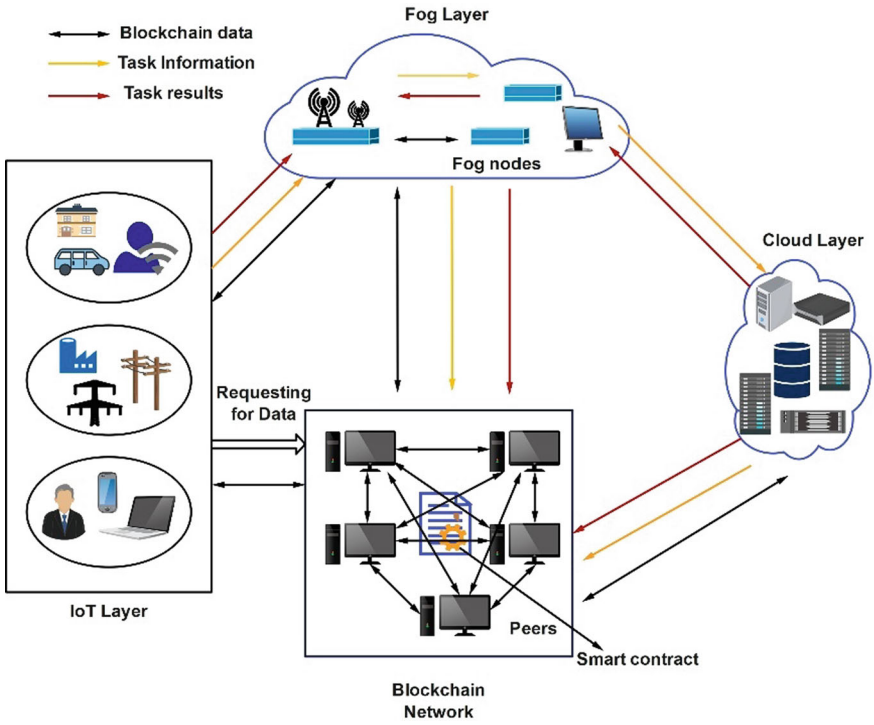

Fig. 1 Secure offloading framework based on blockchain technology

centers, and more. In most cases, the fog gadgets can only do basic computations. Processing tasks are sent to the Cloud layer if their computing demands exceed the available resources.
- Numerous high-powered servers are available in the cloud, allowing it to process and store enormous data sets.

3.1 Generation of Blocks for the Offloading Process in Fog Environments

To put it simply, blockchain is a decentralized database. In a blockchain, each data block contains transaction details that are utilized to verify the data and generate the next block. To ensure the data's security and keep track of the unloading transactions, blockchain technology is employed. Following a proof-of-work (PoW)-based con sensus verification, MSCO will be enhanced with a blockchain that includes all offloaded computing tasks from fog servers [23].

Also, as a byproduct of hashing, there is a PoW that can be verified and tracked. Each node considers the transaction to be unconfirmed at the time it is created. In mathematical terms, it's the same as solving the Proof of Work (PoW) mechanism issue. Whoever completes the PoW command first on the blockchain network will be granted permission to create a new block and broadcast to the whole network all of the transactions recorded in it, along with their timestamps.

Obtaining verification and approval from other nodes is necessary before adding a new block to an existing blockchain [24]. With each new block, we save the hash value of the one before it. An attacker would have a very hard time changing a single block without simultaneously changing every block that came before it. So, it may rest assured that the data will remain intact. Fog server resource monitoring is made possible using blockchain ledgers. The ledger undergoes dynamic revisions. In accordance with the specified parameters, the task can be assigned to the fog server with the lowest resource utilization and longest service waiting time upon receipt of the request.. The ledger is updated in accordance with the creation of a new entry. The full transaction history can be stored by MDs and Fog servers utilizing blockchain technology. When fog servers sign updated workloads, locations, and information, they use their private keys. The unloading transactions are also signed by Mds using their private keys. Given that every Mds keeps a complete record of all transactions, it can easily use the suggested GA-PSO optimization techniques to figure out which Fog server to use for offloading its particular calculation.

To temporarily concentrate the blockchain network, one node might be selected from the network since mining guarantees the system's security. It is an election where the first person to answer the mathematical problem gets to add the block to the blockchain that contains all the transactions after the last block. With their limited processing capability, geo-distributed Fog servers primarily assist mobile devices in releasing their compute workload through the use of offloading technologies.

In the proposed system, mining nodes—which might be operators service protected, specialized high-performance machines—use their abundant computing resources to verify new trans activities and add them to the global ledger. In the event that a fog server disconnects from the network its private key will be produced again when it reconnects. By utilizing blockchain technology, medical directors have the ability to view the current waiting time for service on any Fog server. Additionally, they can connect to the decentralized network in order to reconcile the record of transactions.

3.2 Model for Offloading Computation

The decision-making process for offloading is illustrated in Fig. 2. Depending on where the MDs are right now, the fog servers will be grouped together. In order to offload decision-making to the fog server, the edge gateway searches the blockchain for relevant information. Distributed ledger technology enables fog server resource monitoring. The ledger is subject to changes in real time. Requests for fog servers can be quickly and easily assigned to medical doctors' tasks by using data on service waiting times and resource use.

In a fog computing environment, various parameters were used to model and optimize the secure and efficient offloading of computational tasks. The maximum tolerable delay for an application is expressed as τ_n. D_n is the data size of the task. Mobile devices (MD) involved in the computation process are represented as a set,,

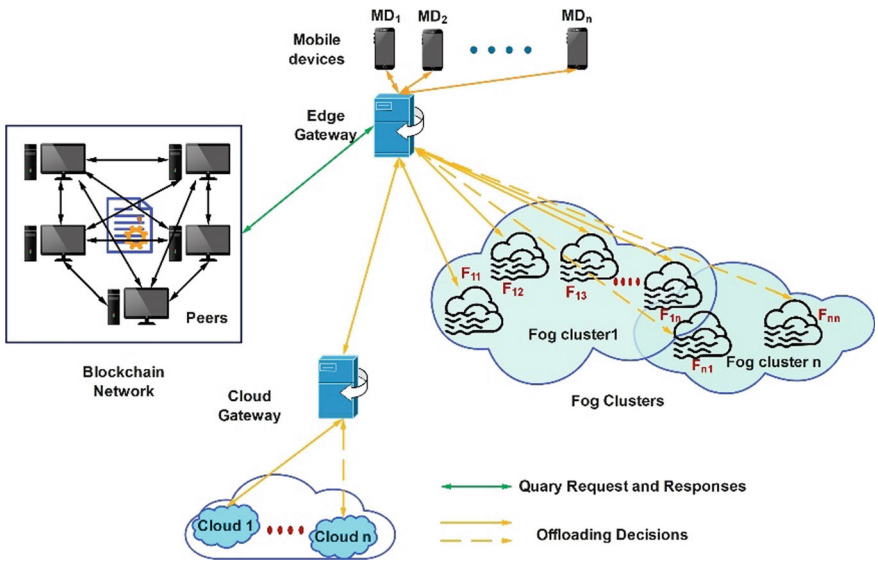

Fig. 2 Offloading Decision-Making Process

with their geographical locations given by li, and their mobility trajectory is captured by MT. Cn is the whole number of central processing unit cycles needed to execute the nth computational task These devices may choose to offload tasks to nearby fog servers, denoted by f_i, which belong to a larger set F of all available fog servers. Each server f_i has a specific computational speed f_{vi}, and a power consumption rate c during the computation process.

The decision to offload a task to a particular fog server is defined by x_i, while P_i indicates the final assignment decision for application a_i, and M_i signifies whether the task will migrate between fog nodes. The estimated waiting time at a location is denoted by w, and twi indicates the waiting time for server fi to become available. Each fog server has a service scope time ST_i, representing how long the mobile device stays within its service range. The distance between two successive locations is represented by d, and D_t is a predefined distance threshold for mobility decisions. The total computational latency of the application is T_i, and the energy cost incurred during execution is denoted by E_i. The mobile device also consumes power t during the offloading process. Finally, R refers to the set of fog servers that are within the service coverage area of a given mobile device, and N indicates the total number of fog clusters in the network.

The set $A = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots a_n\}$ represents the set of MDs applications. A computing task must be completed by each AI. The sum of all the CPU cycles needed to finish the calculation (C_n), the calculation task is defined by parameters such the data size (D_n), and the greatest delay that can be tolerated (τ_n). $F = \{f_1, f_2 \ldots f_n\}$ represents the collection of fog servers. The calculation speed, denoted as f_{vi}, is unique to each fog device.

A program profiler records a wide variety of performance characteristics as an application runs, including execution time, acquired memory, thread CPU time, number of instructions, and method calls. For this reason, program profilers are useful tools for gathering information on an application's (D_n) and (C_n) [25].

When planning the offloading process, mobility should be one of the primary considerations. Using the MDs' past movement logs and the mobility model, we were able to predict their movement patterns [26]. The present position and the predicted order of future locations are utilized to select a group of fog devices. By analyzing the users' past mobility traces, which include the locations and types of sites visited at various time periods, a variant of a multi-variable Bayesian network can be trained to anticipate the users' typical movement patterns. Next, the variable-order Markov chain method was use to accurately forecast the sequence of locations.

The mobility model has been employed. In this context, "staying time" (ST) means:

Definition 1 In fog server service coverage, "Staying Time" is the maximum amount of time that MDs can be in communication with each other. The mobility trajectories of each MD can be used to explain the individual mobility model.

Definition 2 (Mobility Trajectory (MT)) The mobility trajectory of each MD can be represented as a sequence of leaps and locations that are contingent upon the

MD's mobility. The flexibility route can be written as $d_1., l_2., n_1.,q_1, l_3., \Omega,q_3. q_2., d_2., \Omega, d_3.,\ldots$, whereas, $d_1.$ represents the distance among the current position and the next one q_i is the staying time, and $l - i.$ signifies the geographical location and the location that follows. The probability distributions (Δw), (Δd) are used to select Δw_i, and $\Delta d_1.$, respectively. The average velocity of MDs is mv.

A computation outsourcing model for the fog layers can be developed by examining energy consumption and compute latency. The work offloading procedure in the cloud will not be the subject of this paper due to the cloud's immense processing capacity. Fog computing allows users with mobility features to offload computing tasks to any fog server within their coverage radius. The compute task's assignment to a certain fog server is denoted by the symbol x_i. P_i could be one of the offloading considerations when deciding which fog server to use for processing computing tasks inside its coverage zone, where $1 \leq i < R$.

$$P_i = \begin{cases} 1, \text{ if fog server } f_i \text{ is utilized} \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

$$M_{jjk}^{t} = \begin{cases} 1, \text{ if at time t, application.migrates from.f}_i\text{to.f}_k \\ 0, \text{ otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{|R|} P_i x_i = C_n \tag{3}$$

The computation needs to be finished before the location ls, where the deadline of job (τ_n) is to be guaranteed.

$$s = \arg \min_{k} \left| \sum_{k=1} \Delta w_k + \left(\frac{\Delta d_k}{mv} \right) - \tau_n \right| \tag{4}$$

Fog server fi's computational task offloading (xi) is defined as

$$x_i = (ST_i - tw_i) \cdot f_{vi} \tag{5}$$

where f_{vi} is the computing speed of fi, tw_i is the duration that users have to wait for fog server f_i to become accessible, and ST_i is the duration that MD_i stays through the fog server f_i [27]. All the step it takes for a calculation to finish is

$$T_i^c = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{|R|} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \left(\frac{D_i}{r_i} + \frac{x_i}{f_{vj}} \right) P_{ij}^{t}$$

$$+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=0}^{|R|}\sum_{k=0}^{|R|}\sum_{t=0}^{T}\left(\frac{D_i}{r_i}+\frac{(C_i-x_i)}{f_{vk}}\right)M_{ijk}^{t} \tag{6}$$

Data transmission and execution both contribute to the overall energy cost (E_j) when offloading to a specific fog server. Assuming c is the fog server's power consumption during computation, t represents the amount of power that MD_j uses when transmitting data to the fog server. Here is the breakdown of the energy cost [28]:

$$\begin{aligned} E_i = &\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=0}^{|R|}\left(\frac{\Theta_t\cdot D_i}{r_i}+\frac{\Theta_c\cdot x_i}{f_{vj}}\right)P_{ij}^{t} \\ &+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\sum_{j=0}^{|R|}\sum_{k=0}^{|R|}\left(\frac{\Theta_t D_i}{r_i}+\frac{\Theta_c\cdot(C_i-x_i)}{f_{vk}}\right)M_{ijk}^{t} \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

All MDs in the MSCO system should have their computational latency and energy cost minimized. What follows is a formula for the cost function $Cost_i$ of MD_i [29]:

$$\mathrm{Cos}_i = \alpha^c T_i + \alpha^e E_i \tag{8}$$

The weight of the computational latency is denoted by $\alpha - c.$, while the weight of the energy usage is represented by $\alpha_e.$, where both belong to the set [0, 1] ($i \in M$). This allows us to describe the optimization problem as

$$\begin{aligned} Y = &\min_{x_i,P_i,\forall i\in R}\sum_{i}^{R}\mathrm{Cost}_i \\ &\mathrm{s.t.}(S1):\alpha_i^c,\alpha_i^e\in[0,1],\forall i\in R, \\ &(S2):\alpha_i^c+\alpha_i^e=1,\forall i\in R, \\ &(S3):P_i\in[0,1], \\ &(S4):\left(\frac{D_j}{r_j}+\frac{x_j}{f_{vi}}\right)\le ST_i, \\ &(S5):\sum_i x_i\cdot P_i=\tau_i. \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

The decision policy for binary offloading, which involves sending work to either the fog server or the cloud server, is represented by constraints (S1) and (S2). S3 is the constraint that shows the fog server's assignment choice. The fog server's offloading restriction is determined by constraint (S4), which is the duration that MDs stay in the relevant service coverage. The overall computational requirement of an Internet of Things application is directly proportional to the magnitude of the computation performed by all selected fog servers and MDs, as shown by constraint (S5).

For the simple reason that all of the associated variables are integers and the goal function Y is linear ($$). In addition, there is just one option when deciding whether to offload to fog or cloud. These constraints, when added together, produce the suggested optimization function NP-Hard, which is another name for binary programming or Mixed-Integer Programming. To address this issue, it is recommended to loosen up the optimization problem so that the GA and PSO algorithms can work properly. Here is the MIP problem's relaxation, Y′:

$$\begin{aligned} Y' = & \min_{x_i, P_i, \forall \gamma \in \mathcal{N} i \in R} \sum_{i}^{n} \sum_{j}^{N} \text{Cosst}_i \\ & \text{s.t.}\,(S1) : 0 \le \alpha_i^e \le 1, \forall i \in R; 0 \le \alpha_i^e \le 1 \\ & (S2) : \alpha_i^c + \alpha_i^e = 1, \forall i \in R \\ & (S3) : 0 \le P_i \le 1 \\ & (S4) : \left(\frac{D_j}{r_j} + \frac{x_j}{f_{vj}} \right) \le ST_i, \\ & (S5) : \sum_i x_i \cdot P_i = \tau_i. \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

The problem of efficiently offloading work to fog servers is NP-hard. Previous research has used metaheuristic algorithms like GA, PSO, and Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) to address these optimization issues [30, 31]. Thus, the optimization problem mentioned before in MSCO can be solved by combining GA and PSO. Due to its vast solution space and low parent chromosome fitness values, GA has issues with extended convergence times. The issue of local optima slows down the fast convergence of PSO. In theory, the combined GA-PSO approach should outperform the individual GA and PSO algorithms.

Furthermore, the hybrid GA-PSO method can avoid becoming stuck in the local optimal solution since it uses the GA mutation operator, which increases solution accuracy. A GA hybrid called PSO in MSCO can thus resolve the optimization issue noted before. Algorithm 1 demonstrates the mechanism for offloading computations using GA-PSO with the help of the blockchain.

There is an initial algorithm that takes in information such application task characteristics, fog server processing capacities, and movement trajectories. Calculation offloading can be initiated by locating the authorized fog servers that are inside the service coverage region of MDs. This is the initial step of Algorithm 1. Then, using blockchain approach, we can compute, based on each fog server's current load, the waiting time for its service. The GA-PSO method ultimately determines the optimal method of fog server work assignment.

Algorithm 1 Offloading Computations Based on GA-PSO with the Assistance of Blockchain Technology

Input: loT task parameters (D_n, C_n, τ_n), mobility trajectory MT, fog node list F, blockchain ledger B
Output: Secure and optimal task assignment to fog nodes
1: Identify candidate fog nodes within D_t distance as R_t
2: Select nodes based on mobility pattern MT as R_p
3: Compute feasible node set $R \leftarrow R_t \cap R_p$
4: For each node in R, fetch trust score and service latency from blockchain B
5: Filter R to retain only trusted nodes based on a threshold score
6: Optimize task assignment using MCDM technique
7: Return secure assignment list

Algorithm 2 The Hybrid GA-PSO Approach is Used to Generate Candidate Assignment Lists

Input: Initialized population X, Blockchain ledger B, Mobility Trajectory MT
Output: Optimal and secure assignment of task to the fog server in the final iteration X^*
//Initialize GA-PSO population and trust constraints
$i = 1$
for $i \leq I$ do
for each chromosome in X do
Evaluate objective functions: latency, energy, and trust score using (6) and (7)
end for.
Perform genetic crossover operation
Perform mutation based on predefined probability
//Apply PSO to enhance GA output
for each particle in population do
Initialize position, velocity, and trust weight from B
Evaluate fitness Cost_i considering energy, delay, and trust compliance
Identify P_{best} for each particle
end for.
Determine G_{best} as the particle with highest secure fitness score
Update velocity and position using PSO rules
Repeat steps 2 to 17 until stopping criteria (max iterations or convergence) is met
Return optimal secure assignment X^*

The complexity of Algorithm 1 is application-specific and proportional to the size of R. The complexity of Algorithm 1 is O(R|logR|).

3.3 Performance Evaluation

In order to demonstrate MSCO's efficacy, this section presents the specifics of the experimental parameters, comparison methodologies, performance indicators used, and evaluation outcomes.

3.4 Experimental Parameters:

Ubuntu Debian-based workstations with 8 GB of RAM, Intel Core i5 CPUs, and Ubuntu were used for our trials. For the purpose of simulating mobile user pathways and fog server locations, the EUA-data inserted. The single flexibility prototypical uses the EUA to randomly select locales. The locations of 817 mobile users are shown in the EUA-dataset as (latitude, longitude).

By picking sites at random from the EUA-data collection, a user-specific mobility model is created. The experimental data is used to fix the parameters of the mobility model.The staying duration in MSCO is a number that is assumed to be generated at random from a uniform distribution [32].

A private network is set up to mimic the execution environment of the whole Ethereum blockchain. To achieve consensus, the Ether network uses the Proof-of-Work (PoW) method. This made sure that the Ethereum network was always in sync with the most up-to-date data state on the blockchain. A Docker image supporting Ethereum has been built to mimic the entire blockchain's runtime environment. One such public blockchain network is Ethereum, which is open source and distributed. Its Smart Contract capability makes it ideal for building decentralized applications.

The experimental parameters are detailed in Table 1. Making changes to MSCO's settings is one approach to see how it performs. A few of the many factors that need to be thought of include the number of tasks, the amount of fog nodes, the application deadline, and the server vice waiting time of the fog servers. Each experiment is listed in Table 2.

There have been experiments with different application deadlines. When an application is entirely performed on MDs, for instance, its execution time is denoted by d. The application deadlines of 20, 80, and 110% of d have been set. The following algorithms were compared to MSCO.

Table 1 Setting up the experiment

Factor	Range
Machine instructions for Internet of Things applications (MIPS)	1, 3
Each fog server's coverage area (in m)	400, 800
Fog server computational capacity (MIPS)	3, 10

Table 2 Factors on experimental environments

Exp.	Number of task	Number of Fog server	Limit (%)	Services waiting duration (%)
1	10, 20, 30, …, 100	10	80	100
2	100	1, 2, 3, …, 10	80	100
3	100	10	20, 30, …, 110	100
4	100	10	80	5, 15, 25, 95

First-Fit As soon as a fog server is available with sufficient resources to complete the task, it is assigned to it.

Instant Offloading The nearest fog server within its coverage region is assigned the assignment.

Random In order to ensure that the fog server does not run out of resources, tasks are distributed randomly across its coverage region.

BMO An authorized fog server is assigned the task according to its utility value, which is determined by the latency. Validation of the efficiency of MSCO has been done using indicators like total cost and deadline satisfaction ratio.

4 Results and Discussion

4.1 Effect of Changing the Quantity of Task

Figure 3 shows how MSCO stacks up against the other offloading methods in terms of performance and cost. As the graphic shows, both the total cost and the service violation rate rise in direct proportion to the number of tasks. On the other hand, MSCO achieves better results than the current algorithms when compared to their overall cost and service violation rates. This is because MSCO moves the jobs to a better fog server that is within the service coverage of mobile customers when the quantity of jobs increases.

All other techniques experience an increased service violation rate and considerable communication costs due to mobile users' mobility. MSCO takes advantage of this mobility to achieve significantly better performance compared to another techniques.

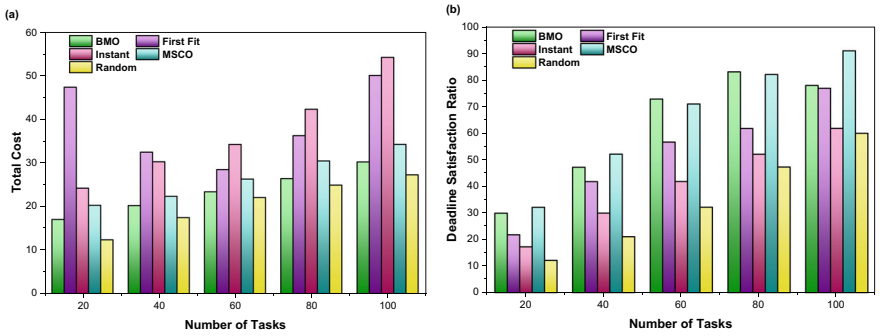

Fig. 3 Effects of different task loads

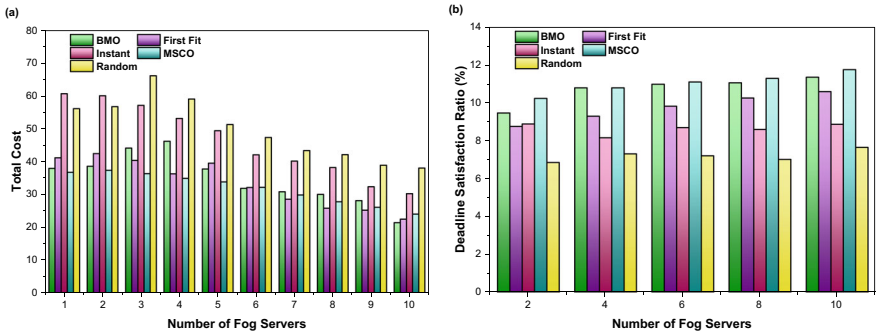

Fig. 4 Effects of different fog server

4.2 Effect of Different Number of Fog Lumps

The correlation between total offloading cost and fog server count is illustrated in Fig. 4. All other methods were shown to be much less effective than MSCO, according to the results. Reason being, MSCO can choose from a wider range of fog servers to offload computations at the most economical prices. Also shown in Fig. 4 is the deadline satisfaction ratio, which reflects this.

4.3 Effect of Varying Deadline of Tasks

With respect to service violation cost and different job deadline limitations, Fig. 4 shows how different offloading techniques performed. When compared to other offloading methods, MSCO produces fewer service violations and lower costs. This is due to the fact that MSCO takes user needs into account when deciding which fog

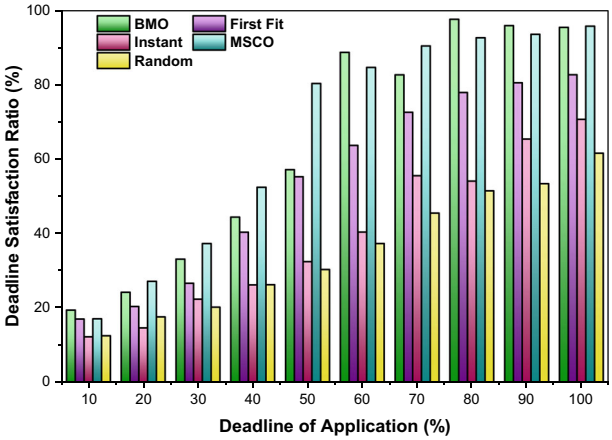

Fig. 5 The effect of different task due date

server is the most cost-effective for work with tight deadlines. Figure 5 displays the total expense.

4.4 Impact of Changing Fog Servers' Service Waiting Time

Through experiments that varied the proportion of service response duration to staying duration, the overall cost of unloading and service defilement charges were ascertained. This is seen in Fig. 6. Even when subjected to different mobility restrictions, MSCO outperformed all of the other approaches. Because MSCO always selects the optimal fog server for work offloading and successfully manages mobility limitations, it outperforms all other offloading approaches. Total offloading cost likewise shows the similar pattern.

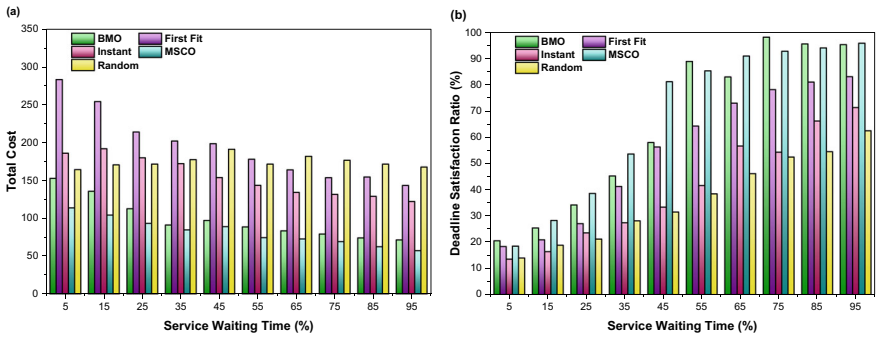

Fig. 6 The results of changing the fog servers' service waiting time

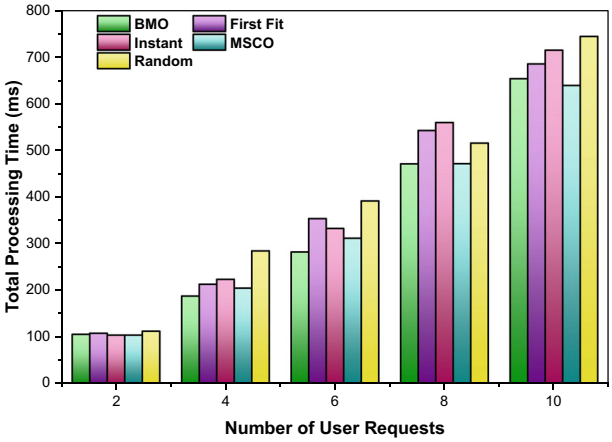

Fig. 7 The effect of the overall processing duration on the dispatching of diverse user requests

4.5 The Effect of the Total Processing Time on a Variety of User Requests for Offloading

Using a public key for identifying devices and a private key for identity, every outsourcing transaction is digitally signed, much like the blockchain idea. Instantaneous execution of mission-specific requests is possible after the smart contract algorithm receives the transaction from MDs. Once the smart contract verifies the MD, the request to offload tasks is authorized.

Experiments have proven that blockchain is effective in making fog environments more secure and robust in offloading circumstances. The number of offloading requests is a good indicator of the entire processing time. Figure 7 shows that compared to all other offloading methods, MSCO achieves the shortest processing time. This is because, unlike all other offloading methods, MSCO selects the optimal approved fog server for the offloading process, which saves a significant amount of time even if MD-fog server authorization takes more time with MSCO.

5 Conclusion

An important but difficult issue in fog computing settings is efficient compute offloading while taking mobility and security into account. In this paper, we introduce MSCO, a secure computation offloading mechanism that uses blockchain technology to identify the best authorized fog servers to offload calculations to from a mobile device. A particle swarm optimization method based on a hybrid genetic algorithm was used to maximize offloading with minimal latency delay and energy usage. The

experimental findings showed that MSCO significantly outperformed the conventional methods, with a total cost improvement of 11% (including latency and energy consumption) on average. The importance of security during offloading was also shown by the experimental results. Budgetary and fault-tolerant considerations of Internet of Things applications will subsequently be addressed in MSCO. When it comes to actual Internet of Things (IoT) settings, these two limitations are crucial for job offloading. The synchronization overhead that occurs when blockchain networks process numerous requests simultaneously will also be factored into MSCO's future extensions.

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Enhancing Fog Computing with a Distributed Mobility-Aware Offloading Framework

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Abstract When it comes to real-time applications, where response time is paramount, fog computing is an excellent method for improving cloud computing performance. The fog computing paradigm effectively reduces latency and enhances throughput by positioning cloud resources in proximity to Terminal Devices (TDs). The task offloading (TO) from Terminal Devices was thoroughly investigated; however, the challenge of TD mobility has not received adequate consideration, which is the focus of the current study. In this context, TD movement in fog computing pertains to the service transfer, when the terminal device moves through one fog into another one, necessitating meticulous coordination among fogs. A system is

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presented to facilitate collaboration between fog computing and the cloud, primarily to continuously monitor the present location of the assigned offloading TD and to effectively execute the job in a dispersed manner whereas the TD is in motion. A structure designates two queues within each fog: one for incoming tasks that arrive TDs and another for transfer tasks from various fogs, utilizing a robust inter-fog communications mechanism to ensure all relevant components are informed of their current situation. A Python software is being developed to replicate a framework and exemplary operational scenarios. A program has been utilized to conduct comprehensive tests to evaluate the framework's performance under varying mobility settings. The results demonstrate that the framework is very dependable and can provide the appropriate reaction to the correct TD at the optimal time across diverse mobility modalities.

Keywords IoT · Cloud computing · Task offloading · Mobility · Fog computing terminal devices (TDs)

1 Introduction

Currently, the IoT has emerged as a pivotal paradigm influencing the technological sector. The 2020 CISCO Annual Internet Report (AIR) forecasts around 29.3 billion network devices globally the conclusion on 2023. Juniper Research estimated projected it would be approximately 50 billion Internet of Things (IoT) devices in 2022. The International Data corporation (i_{dc}) forecasts that, global count of linked gadgets would attain 55.7 billion, with around 75% classified as Internet of Things devices. The International Data Corporation forecasts that the linked Internet of Things devices would generate 73.1 ZB of the data based on 2025, an increase by 18.3 ZB on 2019.

The diverse array of delay-sensitive activity is produced by Internet of Things devices. Owing to property limitations, Internet of Things devices must delegate their jobs to cloud computing systems for expedited the processing.

A Cloud Computation simulate was developed to offer the collection of central cloud computing servers with enhanced storage and computing capacities. The cloud's versatile and scalable architecture has been utilized to perform duties delegated by Internet of Things devices. Nonetheless, the centralizing and remote positioning of cloud computing servers provide many challenges concerning bandwidth, device mobility, and task reaction time, which require meticulous attention.

To address these issues, CISCO established the concept of Fog computing, which aims to get the capabilities of cloud computing properties and services nearer to Internet of Things devices at the network's edge, thereby establishing a fog layer. Figure 1 illustrates that a fog layer comprises a collection of fog nodes (FNs), with each FN typically linked to a network accessing node, such as a Base Station (BS).

The proximity to the fog layers facilitates enhanced the network, storage, and computation capabilities for IoT devices. Consequently, Fog computing may

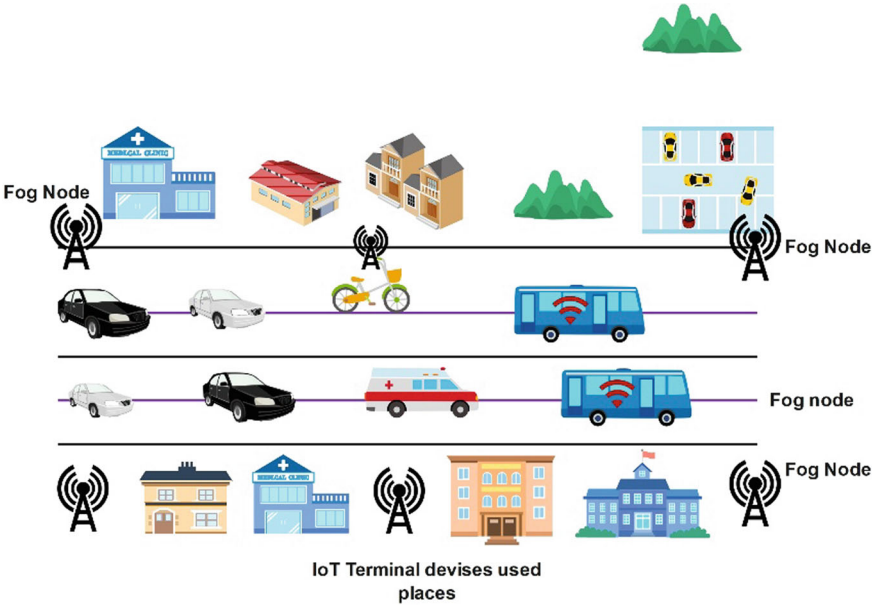

Fig. 1 Conceptual design of Fog computing network

surpass cloud computing in efficiently addressing IoT application demands via task offloading, a process that allows Internet of Things devices to delegate portions of their duties to a designated Fog Node, potentially alleviating issues related to latencies and power consumption. When Internet of Things devices are situated inside the covered region area of a base station, a substantial volume of tasks is directed to the function node. This leads to scalability. The mobility of IoT devices, discussed in this article, is a significant practical concern that has received limited scientific focus. The smartphone can be transported by human beings, robotics, or unmanned aerial vehicle. The mobility of Internet of Things devices impacts the functionality of Fog computing due to their frequent changes in access points.

Specifically, once the FN initiates a task calculation for a particular Internet of Things device, the device may transition from one FN to another. In the absence of design considerations, the Internet of Things device will redundantly transmit the identical task to the newest Fog Node, unnecessarily congested the Fog Nodes, depleting valuable bandwidth, and squandering significant energy. A sensitive and economical offloading strategy was proposed to enhance offloading effective for portable Internet of Things devices, predicated on the notion that these devices operate at high velocities. A mechanism was then implemented to enable Internet of Things devices to facilitate more efficient offloading decisions due to the limited processing capabilities of the FN. An opportunistic FN (OFN) method was presented to alleviate the burden of static FNs. In this system, when an Internet of Things device is in proximity of an OFN, it can offload an activity to the latter and obtain a prompt

response in a direct way. This highlights the concept of Internet of Things device mobility.

This research proposes a Collaborative Offloading Task Frameworks for Internet of Things FC to enhance the efficiency of Internet of Things device mobility and decrease task response period. The primary concept of the structure is to transfer the task responds of the smartphone IOT device as it shifts from one Fog Node to the other. The response to the offloaded job certainly transmitted to the mobile Internet of Things devices by a different FN than the one that initially obtained the activity from the gadget. This migration allocates the task processing across multiple FSs, alleviating the gadgets from the burden of resubmission the work to each Fog Node it transitions to, significantly enhancing the QoS.

1.1 Definition of the Problem

A major issue arises in FC when using smartphones as IOT devices that are enabled by the fog system. After the Fog Node initiates the task calculation for the specific Internet of Things device, the mobile device may relocate to another Fog Node. In the absence of design steps to intervene, the Internet of Things device must again send the identical task to the novel Fog Node. This retransmission, which discards all computations performed in the previous FN, can result in adverse repercussions, including FN congestion, bandwidth use, energy dissipation, and time wastage, perhaps causing the failure to meet a vital deadline. This article proposes a complete framework to address this difficulty.

2 Literature Survey

In recent years, there have been extensive efforts to investigate the topic of mobility fog computing. Concentrates on managing unpredictability in uplink scheduling resulting from vehicular mobility. Proposes a Markov decision technique to enhance scheduling and reaction time. Edge computing is advised to improve overall work offloading efficacy [1]. Researchers introduces PSO BS-Fog to enhance latency in drone-based fog computing systems. Enhances mobility management and illustrates the efficacy of fog computing in the Internet of Devices (IoD) [2]. Emphasizes the effect of IoT offloading on response time through edge processing. Employs AI systems for intelligent provisioning and fog-cloud synchronization. Improves real-time task performance, mobility adaption, and efficiency [3]. Analyzes the function of task offloading in mitigating latency within VEC setups. Prioritizes decision-making algorithms to enhance infotainment and safety features. Relevance pertains to cloud and fog integration, but not to the IoT in general [4].

Addresses delay-sensitive jobs for autonomous vehicles in dynamic environments. Employs advanced preliminary reinforcement learning to minimize energy

and temporal expenditures. Fog or mobility components are not fundamental, yet principles may be applicable [5]. Authors investigates the latency reduction by the proximity of processing to IoT devices. Enhances energy conservation and dynamic mobility assistance with Fog Computing. Facilitates integration with cloud services for enhanced resource allocation and task categorization [6]. Researchers introduces the MAVTO method for mobility-predictive task allocation. Enhances prompt offloading through container virtualization and cloud-fog integration. Facilitates adaptable offloading in dynamic mobility contexts [7]. Scientists concentrates on a resource optimization and minimization of delays through MARL methodologies. Emphasizes the mobility and task allocation efficiency without a specific emphasis on fog applicable to dynamic edge systems possessing cloud-fog capabilities [8]. Researchers concentrated on enhancing global task latency in Vehicle-Focused Control for autonomous cars. The DRL technique dynamically adjusts to truck movement, hence improving offloading efficiency. Surpasses conventional cloud methodologies, yet the specifics of IoT-cloud integration are not explored [9].

Software-Defined Networking (SDN) integrated with fog computing was introduced to facilitate the management of delay-sensitive Internet of Things (IoT) offloading. They employs the Gravitational Search Algorithm to identify optimal fog nodes which decreases delays by 23%-30% and unassigned work by 60–80% [10]. Authors enhances TO in Mobile Edge Computing for the power IOT market and minimizes cloud load while improving response time and resource allocation. Proposes the multi-objective framework to facilitate fog-cloud interaction [11]. Double-DQN was used to mitigate latency in vehicular task offloading and facilitates instantaneous decision-making between local and edge execution. Enhances resource use and aligns with fog computing in dynamic environments [12]. Data visualization converts data into visual representations to convey insights effectively. It aids in comprehending correlations among GDP, literacy, and migration within global statistics. This study employs visual instruments to analyze diverse socio-economic assumptions across nations [13]. Researchers concentrated on minimizing latency and energy consumption in vehicle-to-edge job offloading, employs a PSO-based strategy, although without a direct emphasis on fog or mobility. Facilitates edge optimization in IoT-related activities [14].

Researchers aims to optimize latency and energy efficiency in VEC using V2I and V2V communication. Facilitates collaborative task execution in interconnected vehicle networks. Facilitates fog/cloud integration indirectly by distributed techniques [15]. The JRNP technique was introduced for minimizing latency and optimizing network load distribution. Applicable to IIoT, although fog and mobility concerns are not extensively addressed. Facilitates distributed task management with enhanced resource allocation [16]. Quality of Service in smart city healthcare using fog-based load distribution was focussed and the EQLS method enhances energy efficiency and response time. Although not exclusive to IoT, the findings suggest advantages for wider fog applications [17]. The task offloading is concentrated in vehicular edge computing utilizing non-orthogonal multiple access and deep graph reinforcement learning. Enhances service efficiency and resource distribution in intricate settings. Improves performance, while fog/cloud integration is

not thoroughly examined [18]. Deep Reinforcement Learning was used to facilitate dynamic offloading contingent upon the context of IoT devices. Enhances latency using fog computing and optimizes cloud integration. Enhances Quality of Service amidst variable loads in distributed settings [19]. In March 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) proclaimed covid-19 a pandemic. Saudi Arabia implemented early precautionary steps. This study use the SEIR model to forecast the epidemic trajectory in Saudi Arabia and evaluate the effects of treatments [20]. The researchers clarifies how local data processing decreases latency compared to centralized cloud systems. Applicable to industries such as automotive and healthcare for expedited replies [21]. Quantum simulation is crucial because of the restricted accessibility of universal quantum computers. This study introduces a cloud-based simulation framework for the Grover algorithm, assessing five architectures in terms of performance, efficiency, and scalability for up to 31-bit simulations [22].

DEADTO for delay-energy-aware offloading in Cloud Virtual Networks (CVNs) was implemented and focussed on preserving Quality of Service while utilizing environmental context. Facilitates fog-like advantages without explicitly outlining the connection to cloud fog [23]. The AI-driven methodology reduces latency and enhances resource utilization at fog levels. Facilitates mobility-aware, low-latency unloading for vehicles. Concentrates on real-time Internet of Vehicles applications while excluding cloud integration [24]. Sentiment analysis derives emotional and opinion-based information from text through natural language processing. The research analyzes user sentiments regarding PlayStation by contrasting tweets that include direct mentions of the official account with those that do not. Results indicate increased candid input absent the official designation [25]. The reinforcement learning was used to enhance real-time task allocation in VEC. Stresses resource allocation without much discourse on fog or cloud topics. The efficiency was improved in vehicle networks through multi-agent systems [26]. The task latency was reduced in V2X autonomous driving contexts and offloading determinations and allocation efficacy was improved. Does not explicitly reference fog or IoT, yet endorses analogous applications [27]. Integrates cloud and fog computing to minimize latency and energy consumption through vehicle-to-vehicle forwarding. Highlights mobility-informed choices to enhance Quality of Service (QoS). Minimizes fog burden and enhances unloading via economical models [28].

Intelligent agriculture increasingly depends on extensive data for optimization and expansion. Nonetheless, smallholders frequently encounter exclusion and ethical issues pertaining to data ownership and transparency. This chapter examines farmer-led governance strategies to promote ethical data utilization in agriculture [29]. LSTM-based forecasting was used to enhance offloading in Visual IoT systems, that improves the management of latency-sensitive tasks and optimizes resource efficiency [30]. Concentrates on offloading in Edge-IoV to mitigate service delays. Edge integration facilitates mobility and instantaneous decision-making. Mitigates cloud restrictions by the utilization of fog computing [31]. Introduces a Stackelberg game model and fuzzy pricing logic. Aims to reduce delay and improve vehicle utility in IoV. While fog/cloud integration isn't explicit, system efficiency improves [32].

Fog computing was used to reduce latency in IoT settings. Facilitates dynamic allocation of tasks according to device state. The use of fog-cloud optimizes many quality of service restrictions [33]. The VEH-PLA approach mitigates processing delays by synchronized platooning. Fog/cloud integration is limited yet conceptually significant [34]. Autonomous Vehicles require effective task offloading to satisfy real-time processing requirements. This research presents a machine learning system that executes dynamic offloading decisions informed by vehicle and network conditions. It delineates prospective research trajectories for CAV edge computing [35]. Machine learning facilitates dynamic work allocation in connected and automated vehicles (CAVs). Improves mobility and incorporates fog/cloud computing for enhanced performance. Enhances immediate responsiveness across distributed edge resources [36]. Integrates Harris-Hawks and Moth-Flame methodologies for multi-objective optimization. Reduces latency and enhances energy/resource efficiency. Primarily centered on fog computing, although relevant to mobility and cloud assistance [37].

An examination of mobile fog computing reveals that a significant difficulty with the processing of tasks offloaded by mobile devices, particularly the frequent alteration of fog nodes, has not been adequately handled. The issue pertains to the management of a task that was delegated to a specific Fog Node by a particular smartphone, which, due to its mobility, subsequently transitions to a new Fog Node prior obtaining the respond from the previous Fog Node. The present research focuses on optimally managing this activity cooperatively using the fog system to conserve energy, time, and bandwidth.

3 System Model

Figure 2 illustrates that the examined system comprises three levels: Mobile Computing (MC), Cloud Computing (CC), and Fog Computing (FC). The Mobile Computing section, also known as the perception layer, represents the foundational level and generally comprises a substantial quantity of mobile Terminal Devices spatially dispersed over a highway operating area. The TDs may include Internet of Things devices like sensors, smartphones, tablets, smartwatches, smart eyewear, and actuators, all of which continuously generate tasks. Additionally, each TD is equipped with unique resources, such as a wireless transmitter interface board, memory, battery, and CPU strength. Each Terminal Device is equipped with a restricted buffer to store duties that will be executed at a later time when computational resources are available, due to memory constraints.

The Fog Computing section, also known as the network edge, comprises a collection of FN strategically positioned along the highway. Every FN acquires offloading jobs from the Terminal Devices located within its coverage region. Due to their closeness to the TDs, Fog nodes mitigate the burden destined for the cloud, hence assuring low latency for the TDs within their coverage region. Mitigates latency in IoT with Fog Computing layers. Improves VFC mobility management and utilizes

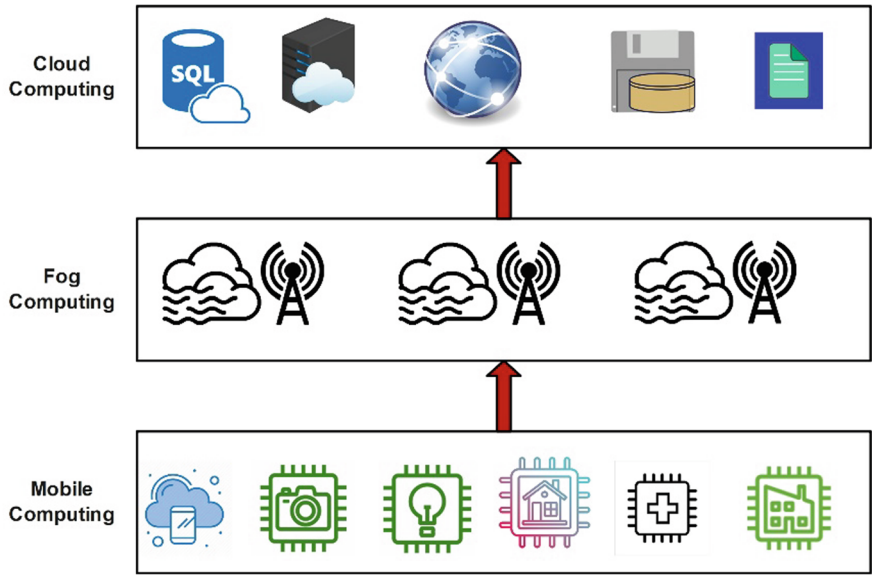

Fig. 2 IoT layer stack

cloud-fog synergy. Enhances performance for time-critical applications via localized offloading [38].

The geographic region adjacent to the roadway is segmented into N cells, labelled c_1, c_2,…, c_N, as shown in Fig. 3. It is assumed that a single FNs f_k, which possesses a unique identification i_{df}, exclusively serves cell c_k, which is identified by a unique identity i_{dc}. A Computing Server within the bac_kbone network acquires an exhaustive overview of the fog nodes' status. The Terminal Device's numbers can be accommodated within the particular cell differs from one cell to another. Among all cells, every Terminal Device have unique identity idt. In addition, each Terminal Device i in cell c_k has a profile P_i^k, which is comprised of the three sets. The Computing Server is equipped with data structure utilized to preserve the terminal device profiles, that are currently situated in each cell. The Computing Server is responsible for assigning the designating idt to any Terminal Device entering the network, specifically at any relevant cell.

It was predicted that, the computing server has a Free Identifier List that the Terminal devices was accessed by calling the getFreeId() function. The freshly arrived Terminal Device i at a specific c_k can as certain the i_{df} that contains the fog f_k via other Terminal Devices located inside that cell.

The Terminal Devices generate duties that are performed the other TD at fog node. When Terminal Device in the cell (c_k) delegate its fog activity, the task reaction was transmitted from fog f_k to Terminal Device i following computation. This transmission is either direct (single hop) when the Terminal Device remains within

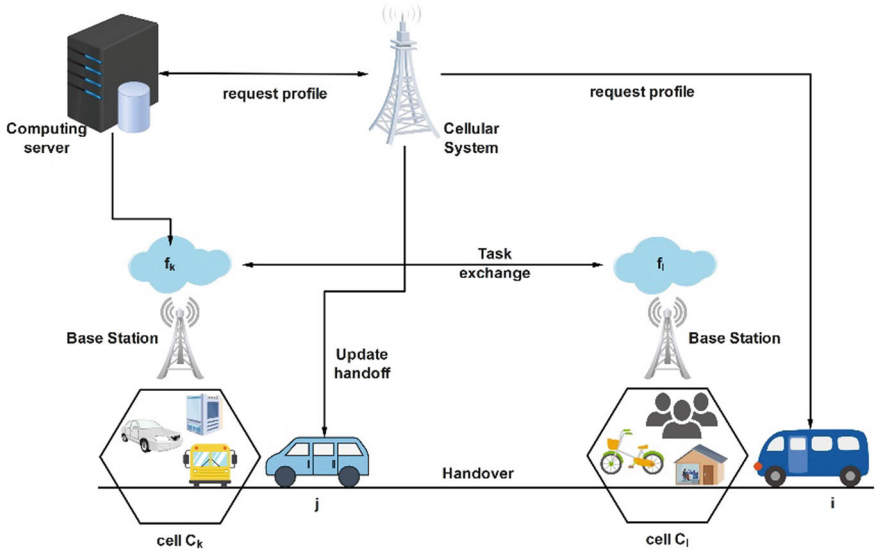

Fig. 3 System model

cell through intermediary fogs if Terminal Device was transitioned to different cell (cl).

4 Fog Modeling

It was expected that Terminal Devices that arrive at the specific cell of a specific fog were classified into two primary categories: Type-1 and 2. The initial category encompasses all Terminal Devices that are connected to a specific cell and are not related with any fog. As a result, Terminal Device was classified as Type-1. The Type-2 comprises Terminal Devices that are initially associated with a particular fog but subsequently transition to the coverage zone of an alternative fog through a handoff. Consequently, Terminal Device j in Fig. 1 is classified as type-2. As soon as type-1 reaches the specific cell recorded by the Computing Server, which subsequently generates a profile for it. The Computing Server and Terminal Devices are coordinated through the use of the initialization message iniMSG and the replay message repMSG to establish a Terminal Device profile. A type-2 TD modifies its profile during the handoff process, which involves transitioning from one cell to another. The task arrivals were categorized into two groups: class-1 and class-2. Arrivals from type-1 Terminal Devices are denoted by Class 1. The task arriving at fog f_k is organized in the New Task Buffer (NTB), an infinitely sized buffer.

The task suggestion is entering the New Task Buffer (NTB) buffer as Terminal Device in cell ck moves from coverage zone to cell surrounded by fog. The responsibility of notifying fog f_k that Terminal Device moved to cell hidden by f_1 fog, lies with the Computing Server, according to the alert message alrMSG. Currently held in the New job Buffer, the job of Terminal Device i is classed as class-2 and sent to the Handoff Task Buffer (HTB), an indefinitely sized buffer at fog f_k, in this case. Once task Terminal Device i has finished at fog f_k, it will transmit the information to fog f_1, which will then forward it to Terminal Device i. This investigation suggests that class-2 is prioritized and served before class-1. Mitigates delays in MEC for medical services by effective offloading. Concentrates on the duration of task completion and energy utilization to enhance Quality of Experience (QoE). Mobility management and fog computing are not explicitly examined [39].

4.1 New TD Operations

Upon entering the transmission range of fog f_k, a TD i detects the medium for beacon information from other Terminal Devices within its cell c_k for a specified duration τ. The pair (i_{df}, i_{dc}) is the beacon information bMSG. One of the following two scenarios is the case for Terminal Device i, depending on the results of the sensing procedure:

This process is represented in Algorithm 1.

TD i sends initial message iniMSG = $\langle idf \rangle$ to Control Station (CS).

CS assigns a new ID: idt = getFreeID ().

Construct profile:

$$P_i^k = \langle idf, ifc, idt \rangle$$

TD i receives profile via response message:

$$\text{repMSG} = P\_i \hat{} k$$

Else.

TD i sends location-based message iniMSG = $\langle x, y \rangle$ to CS

CS assigns a new ID: idt = getFreeID()

TD i receives profile via response message:

repMSG = $\langle i_{df}$, ifc, idt)

End

Algorithm 1. Generation Process of the profiles.

This period was defined as the time from the moment Terminal Device i, which is located in cell c_k, relinquishes its responsibilities to fog f_k, until Terminal Device i is transitioned to another cell cl, where $k \neq l$. The following is a detailed explanation of the cell dwell period of Terminal Device i:

$$\mathscr{R}_i^k . \leq v_i^k$$
$$v_i^k \geq \mathscr{R}_i^k$$

1. If, $v_i{}^k \geq \mathscr{R}_i{}^k$ and, TD $\geq \mathscr{R}_i{}^k$, then terminal device will successfully get its response task within the originating cell c_k by direct transmission. Namely:
   a. $\mathcal{R}_i^k = U_i^k + Q_{NTB}^k + T_P + D_i^k (1)$
2. If $\mathcal{R}_i^k > v_i^k$, and $\mathcal{R}_i^k < T_D$ are present, T_D within its initial cell c_k, i will not receive the task response. This situation may occur when TD i is transferred from one to another cell.
   - Scenario 1: The new fog f_l receives the mission from the Terminal Device with a revised deadline. This retransmission will increase battery usage, communication overhead, and reaction period. The response time is defined as follows in this scenario.

$$\mathcal{R}_i^l = U_i^l + Q_{NTB}^l + T_P + D_i^l + U_i^k + Q_{NTB}^k \quad (2)$$

   - Scenario 2: In order to address the issue of prolonged reaction time, the transfer mechanism was implemented to transmit task responses from previous to subsequent fog fl during handoff procedure. The response time is defined as follows in this scenario.

$$\mathcal{R}_i^l = U_i^k + T_P + Q_{HTB}^k + D_i^l \quad (3)$$

where, Q_{HTB}^k denotes the waiting period in Handoff Task Buffer (HTB) at fog. The subsequent subsection provides a detailed explanation of the transfer procedure.

4.2 Operations on Handoff TD

If the Terminal Device being in cell c_k was offloaded and is responsible for fogging f_k. While Terminal Device awaits a task response from f_k, it commences to traverse roadway into network coverage area from another fog f_l. Terminal Device initiates the handoff to f_l when it receives a robust wireless signal from f_l. TD i initiates the task migration mechanism and updates its profile following the implementation of the automatic link transfer process, as illustrated in Fig. 4.

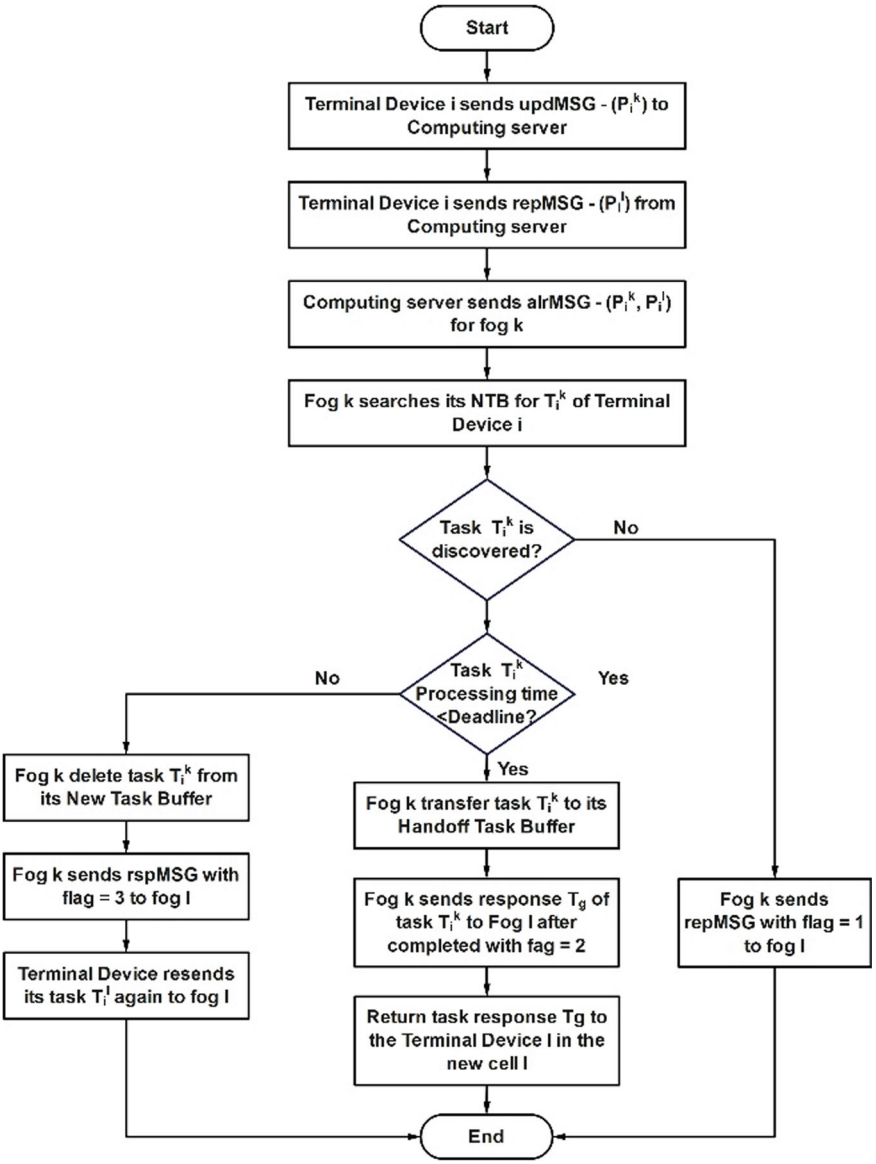
Start
Terminal Device i sends updMSG - (P_i^k) to Computing server
Terminal Device i sends repMSG - (P_i^l) from Computing server
Computing server sends alrMSG - (P_i^k, P_i^l) for fog k
Fog k searches its NTB for T_i^k of Terminal Device i
Task T_i^k is discovered?
No
Task T_i^k Processing time <Deadline?
No
Yes
Yes
Fog k delete task T_i^k from its New Task Buffer
Fog k transfer task T_i^k to its Handoff Task Buffer
Fog k sends rspMSG with flag = 3 to fog l
Fog k sends response T_g of task T_i^k to Fog l after completed with fag = 2
Fog k sends repMSG with flag = 1 to fog l
Terminal Device resends its task T_i^l again to fog l
Return task response Tg to the Terminal Device l in the new cell l
End

Fig. 4 Task and handoff process migration of TD

Initially, Terminal Device transmits the update message into the Computing Server. In subsequent steps, the Computing Server generates the new profile and responds to Terminal Device with the message repMSG $= \langle P_i^l \rangle$.

Upon receiving it the fog front, repMSG message does a leading subsequent action contingent upon its worth the flag:

- Step 1, if flag equals 1: Take no action.
- Step 2, if flag equals 2: Fog f_l deliver TR's explanation straight to Terminal Device located inside the cell c_l.
- Step 3, in the event that equals 3: Fog f_l issues in a alarm to Terminal Device i to re-transmit the task assignment.

5 Results and Discussions

It has portion presents the simulated and outcomes for the presented collaborative task offloading structure. The simulator software was developed in Python and subsequently executed on an Processor: Intel(R) Core(TM) i5-10300H, utilizing Windows 10 OS. Table 1 delineates many parameters for operation employed to configure the simulation procedure. The simulation parameters include the task creation rate of TDs, processing time for the task Temperature at fog nodes, the number of TDs inside cells, the number of VMs, and the handoff frequency. During the experiment trials, the number of handoffs regulates the velocity of Terminal Devices descending onto a fog. The higher the handoff rate, the more mobile the system is, whereas the lower it is, the less mobile it is. For every experiment to reach convergence, five million simulation iterations were considered sufficient. Equation (1) defines task reaction time, and the simulation results are shown against task evaluation rate at fog nodes, number of virtual machines (VMs), quantity of terminal devices per cell, and rate of arrival of terminal devices. Every simulation runs evaluates task reaction time in two conditions, one with and one without the proposed framework, as per Eqs. (2) and (3).

Figure 5 illustrates the enhancement of task reaction time by one that suggested framework in a excellent mobility scenario, with a handoff rate of 0.01 Terminal Devices per second. This experiment involves the homogeneous distribution of 500 TDs throughout three cells. There are 50 VMs, each with a processing rate of 0.001 tasks per second. Examines MEC-based offloading to mitigate latency and optimize resource allocation. Enhances device mobility and response time in IoT contexts. Facilitates fog and cloud interaction for instantaneous job execution [40, 41].

The assignment response period using the structure (the sloping part) smaller than fifty percent of how much it's worth without structure (top of the head). This structure enables a activity transported from a cell to persist in processing subsequent to its

Table 1 Operational parameters

Parameters	Values
Number of VMs	50
Number of terminal devices	50–500
Download time of task response	500 ms
Upload time of task	500 ms
Number of cells (fogs) (N)	3

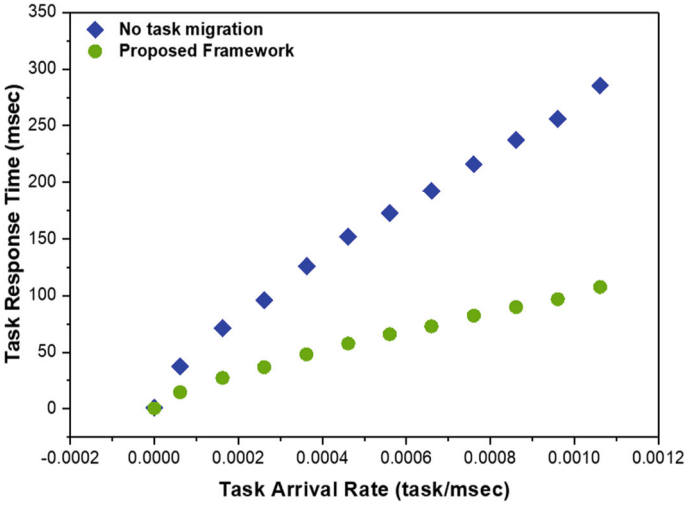

Fig. 5 Generation rate versus response time

discharge task descriptor Terminal Device leaves the cell. In contrast, without the structure, the Terminal Device would need to reconsider the task to the newest cell, resulting in the loss of any processing completed in the departed cell. The framework significantly reduces response time, particularly at elevated task arrival rates [42].

Figure 6 illustrates a scenario of minimal mobility with a passing rate of 0.00001 TD/second. The illustration indicates if response period was reduced with structure (lower back) compared to minus it (top curve). Comparison of Figs. 5 and 6 reveals that the enhancement in task response time provided by the structure is more significant under high mobility conditions than under low mobility conditions. The rationale for the suggested framework's superior efficacy in high mobility contexts compared to limited movement may elucidated the following way. In cases where movement is minimal, the likelihood that the Terminal Device exits within the cell after offloading a job is low, hence increasing the probability of receiving the response before to departure, rendering the framework unnecessary. Conversely, when mobility is elevated, the likelihood that the terminal device exits the cell after offloading a task increases, hence raising the probability of not receiving a response prior to departure, necessitating the advantages offered by the structure.

Figure 7 depicts the assignment reaction time in relation to the number of Terminal Devices under excellent mobility conditions, with a passing rate of 0.01 TD/second, both alongside and apart from suggested structure. As is possible Fig. 7 depicting the task reaction time relative to the number of Terminal Devices under high mobility conditions, with a handoff rate of 0.01 TD/second, both alongside and apart from suggested structure. The system significantly reduces task response time, irrespective of the number of Terminal Devices assigning work to someone else. The rationale, once more, is that transferring the assignment's reaction to the subsequent dense fog

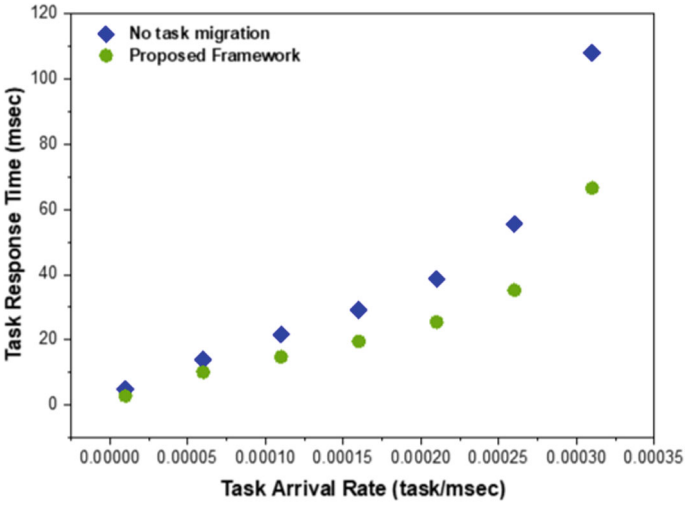

Fig. 6 Task generation rate versus task response time in low mobility

alleviates the need for offloading the work again at the new fog to which the Terminal Device has relocated.

During periods of little movement, as seen in Fig. 8, with a passing rate of 0.00001 TD/second, the advantageous impact in terms of the suggested framework is evident, regarding a diminished degree. The framework's diminished efficacy with little movement is attributed to the high probability that a TD receives the response to an

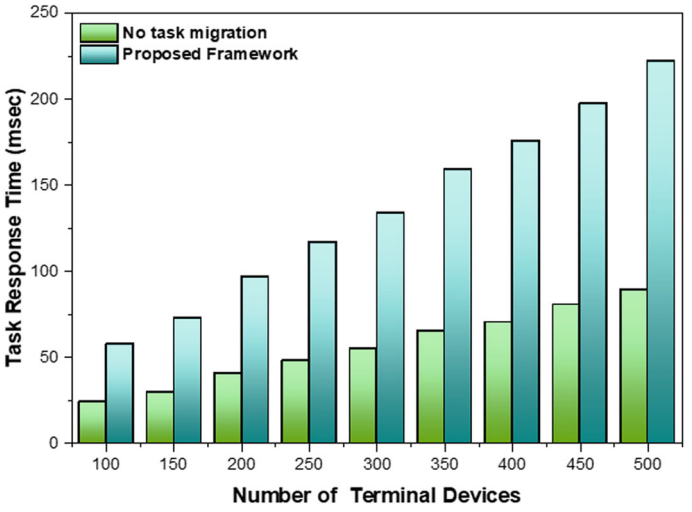

Fig. 7 Number of TDs versus task response time at high mobility

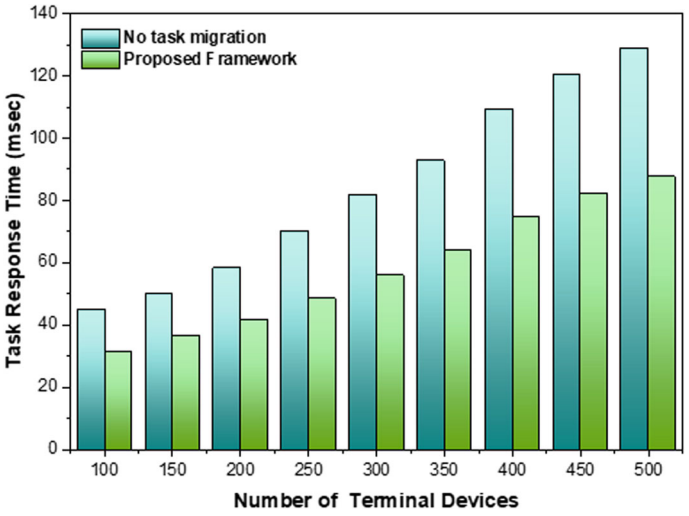

Fig. 8 Number of TDs versus task response time at low mobility

offloaded job while remaining within same offloading cell. It has indicated that the service of the suggested structure isn't need to be critically required just as in the very mobile scenario.

6 Conclusion

This paper presents an interconnected cloud-fog structure for the workload transporting mobile terminal devices. The system guarantees a smooth transition as the Terminal Device traverses boundaries from fog to fog, while simultaneously maintaining a low task response time that meets specified QoS requirements. The framework presupposes the deployment of many fog nodes through a roadway, along with a control station on the network's backbone for comprehensive scene watchful keeping. The TD's task response transition from one fog to another if TD traverses different fogs. Each fog is equipped with two queues: one for jobs being locally offloaded and another for tasks transferred from other fogs. An inter-fog messaging system is created to maintain network integrity by facilitating communication between fogs and the cloud server (CS). A mechanism for regulating the handoff procedure of Terminal Devices in both highest and lowest movement has been created. Any software that can simulate developed with Python to evaluate the implementation in terms of the suggested framework for task reaction period, travel, and cellular residence in period. The virtual studies conducted indicate that the suggested framework reduces response time, hence assisting real-time applications in meeting stringent deadlines.

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Enhancing Trust and Integrity in IoT-Fog Networks Using Blockchain-Based Auditing

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Abstract Secure and transparent cooperation between Internet of Things applications and edge computing are crucial for the full realization of smart city technologies. To reduce the processing load of Internet of Things (IoT) tasks, devices with limited resources might use fog computing. For the security of IoT data, fog and IoT must authenticate with each other, and for fog services to be monetized, the fog service ecosystem must be improved. But, fog nodes could intentionally or unintentionally fail to reliably respond to Internet of Things (IoT) queries. Establishing trust amongst fog nodes is crucial in the public decentralized Internet of Things (IoT) fog ecosystem. A blockchain-based system is presented in this paper that (1) optimizes the revenue generation from fog-IoT mutual authentication services (2) guarantees that fog nodes are honest by conducting service audits, and (3) uses incentives and penalties to deter dishonest behavior and encourages fog nodes to be honest.

Keywords Fog computing · Blockchain · Mutual authentication · Service auditing · Smart contracts

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1 Introduction

A network of ever-increasing sensor nodes and computing devices linked together over the web, the "Internet of Things" (IoT) is constantly growing. The fundamental motivation for the development of the IoT in both the public and commercial sectors has been to improve our quality of life. The first step towards smart city reality is a complete network of collaborative Internet of Things apps. External compute and storage are relied upon by numerous IoT devices and apps because of their limited internal capabilities. Even while cloud data centers can handle a large number of IoT queries, due to congestion on networks in remote locations, IoT devices may still experience substantial response latency. Some real-time Internet of Things (IoT) applications in fields like healthcare, autonomous vehicles, and multimedia may be hindered by this increased latency.

Fog computing refers to the expansion of cloud services to the edge of a network in terms of compute. A network of dispersed "micro data centers," or nodes, is used to support the Internet of Things (IoT) with low latency in the fog layer. Incorporating fog technologies alongside the IoT and the cloud is essential for smart city network computing architectures that prioritize energy efficiency.

Modern studies in fog computing have focused on rules for offloading resources from IoT devices to fog nodes and on designing fog infrastructures efficiently. But the study doesn't take into account how fog computing and the IoT are mutually dependent. IoT devices rely on authenticated servers for accurate, real-time service. Fog nodes require advertising and payment for services provided by trusted vendors.

In addition, previous studies have assumed that fog nodes always show integrity. The IOT devices are designed to unconditionally trust fog nodes, despite the possibility that these nodes may provide erroneous information, either inadvertently or deliberately. Due to a lack of oversight and responsibility, the Internet of Things (IoT) fog environment is fundamentally unreliable. In order to ensure the safety of the Internet of Things (IoT) and its associated fog ecosystem, it is crucial to check that all active fog nodes are working properly and to remove any malicious fog nodes from the latter.

In addition, without proper security standards, IoT networks might be manipulated or compromised. Blockchain's decentralization, immutability, and high transparency render it a potential option for ensuring security, privacy, and access control in the IoT. Because of this, blockchain can help establish a mutually authenticated route for secure communication between the fog and the IoT. Blockchain technology also has the ability to improve the way fog computing services handle payments for IoT devices and to guarantee data integrity among fog nodes.

In a trustless IoT-fog environment, there should be a streamlined system that does the following: (1) Verifies the integrity of IoT devices and fog nodes before providing services; (2) Enables the transfer of funds from IoT to fog for the purpose of paying for services; (3) Identifies and punishes malicious fog nodes; and (4) Promotes integrity while discouraging dishonesty. The requirements of the IoT fog and the limitations of previous work informed this decision.

We present a fog computing service auditing framework that uses state-of-the-art data auditing techniques to guarantee computational consistency. So far as we are aware, this is the initial attempt to use a service auditing mechanism to maintain fog's service integrity. Using fog nodes provided by blockchain technology, we combine modern frameworks for mutual authentication and fog monetization into one cohesive blockchain application, which in turn reduces latency. Fog Identity and Service Integrity Enforcement (FISIE) is our proposed solution. It uses a single smart contract to unify IoT-fog identity, service, monetization, and integrity checks. This paper details an Ethereum Proof-of-Concept with the FISIE smart contract. This approach is interoperable with any other blockchain platform that offers smart contract management.

Here are the key points of our contributions:

- Researchers examine and integrate current literature related to finance, services, and reciprocal authentication.
- Researchers present a universal framework for blockchain-enabled fog and heterogeneous IoT that can communicate with any blockchain that supports smart contracts.
- Researchers outline a penalty mechanism to ensure the integrity of the service.
- In order to ensure the system's ideal integrity, researchers evaluate its security and examine several auditing scheduling policies.
- Our system for monetization, mutual authentication, and service auditing is built on top of smart contracts. It explores how blockchain enhances trust and transparency in AI systems, especially for combating digital threats like sextortion. It underscores decentralization, immutability, and auditability to support victim empowerment and law enforcement. Although smart contracts and identity management are not addressed, the work highlights ethical AI governance [1].

2 Related Works

The objective is to minimize communication latency and guarantee security and integrity in the IoT-fog environment. The literature review focuses on recent advances in Internet of Things (IoT) fog security, auditing of data in fog environments, monetization of data using blockchain, and implementation of blockchain in fog computing. The paper presents AI's role in improving FinTech security by real-time fraud detection and predictive threat analysis. It emphasizes data integrity and user trust but does not delve into blockchain, smart contracts, or decentralized identifiers. AI-driven measures are proposed to reinforce next-generation financial security protocols [2]. The study showcases blockchain's use in securing healthcare data by ensuring verification and tamper resistance through distributed consensus. It highlights that compromising data requires control over 50% of nodes, boosting security and patient trust. Smart contracts and identity management are not explicitly addressed [3]. The research proposes integrating blockchain with AI to detect fraud and maintain data

integrity. It highlights decentralized verification protocols as a foundation for robust cybersecurity [4]. The paper demonstrates how blockchain enables automated smart contracts and secure identity verification in healthcare. It emphasizes data integrity, privacy, and fraud prevention through decentralized systems. This fosters patient trust and enhances compliance in health information management [5]. The paper focuses on automating smart contracts using blockchain and optimization techniques for improved execution and transparency. It enhances data integrity and fraud prevention in virtual ecosystems. While DIDs are not covered, the work underscores secure contract administration [6]. The paper explores IoT applications across domains like smart cities, healthcare, agriculture, logistics, and accessibility for the physically challenged. It also discusses key challenges such as data security, interoperability, machine-to-machine communication, and standardization. The study concludes with recommendations for future IoT research and development [7].

The research emphasizes blockchain's ability to automate financial agreements through smart contracts, reducing manual processes. It enhances fraud prevention and traceability using immutable ledgers. Though decentralized identity isn't explored, core blockchain security features are highlighted [8]. This study proposes using smart contracts and decentralized identifiers to secure access to personal health records. Blockchain ensures data integrity and patient-controlled authentication. It presents a robust model to prevent unauthorized access and uphold data privacy [9]. Focusing on AI and blockchain integration, the paper shows a major reduction in unauthorized access and accurate threat detection. While it doesn't address smart contracts or DIDs, it proves blockchain's strength in protecting sensitive healthcare data. Security metrics validate its reliability [10]. The paper compares Auto ARIMA and two custom ARIMA models using five years of Netflix stock data. Among them, ARIMA (1, 1, 33) proved most accurate based on MAPE and holdout testing. The study shows ARIMA's potential in producing reliable stock market forecasts [11]. The paper presents blockchain as a decentralized, tamper-proof solution for managing healthcare data. It enhances access control and traceability without specifically mentioning smart contracts or identity tools. Its storage mechanisms support authentication and fraud prevention across medical records [12]. AI and homomorphic encryption are used for secure cyberattack detection in IoT. Blockchain ensures data integrity, but the paper doesn't cover smart contracts, identity tools, or fraud-focused mechanisms. Emphasis is on privacy-preserving methods for IoT security [13].

The paper uses Corda DLT to maintain secure and authentic healthcare data exchange by digital signatures and peer-to-peer links. Though smart contracts and DIDs aren't covered, traceability and auditing ensure accountability. System performance confirms security effectiveness [14]. The review highlights smart contracts, verification protocols, and decentralized identifiers to secure healthcare data. It underscores fraud prevention across patient records and drug logistics. These innovations support enhanced trust, efficiency, and system resilience in medical applications [15]. This paper explores blockchain's role in enhancing cyber defense through smart contracts and decentralized identifiers for secure identity management. It emphasizes tamper-proof auditing and verification for fraud resistance. These measures bolster system trust and resilience against cyber threats [16]. The paper evaluates

deep learning models, particularly Wasserstein GANs, for simulating turbulent flows. It examines network parameters like learning rate and loss functions using high-resolution DNS data. Results show qualitative and quantitative agreement, validating WGANs for turbulence prediction [17]. Smart contracts automate claims in 2.8 s, enhancing efficiency in insurance fraud detection. Blockchain ensures tamper-proof claim records and a 95.8% fraud detection rate. While identity management is not discussed, the system boosts accuracy and robustness against manipulation [18].

The study applies smart contracts on Ethereum to verify digital certificates, automating secure validation. It reinforces document integrity and protects against forgery via decentralized storage. Identity management isn't covered, but fraud prevention is effectively demonstrated [19]. It explores how blockchain enables smart contract automation and decentralized identity verification, enhancing digital trust. It emphasizes data integrity and fraud prevention by transparent, immutable ledgers. Together, AI and blockchain create a secure, efficient ecosystem for transactions and data handling [20]. The IoT streamlines global supply chains and improves data-driven decisions for manufacturers and retailers. However, the paper notes challenges such as device connectivity, IT infrastructure overhaul, and limited processing power for large-scale data handling. These complexities impact scalability and performance in retail logistics [21].

The paper highlights blockchain's broader impact on finance, improving transaction speed, transparency, and risk mitigation. While identity verification and accounting standardization are mentioned, smart contracts and decentralized identifiers are not deeply explored. The focus remains on sectoral transformation over technical specifics [22]. This paper integrates blockchain with AI to secure digital identities in e-commerce using decentralized identifiers and smart contracts. Verification protocols and tamper-proof ledgers ensure data integrity. AI analytics enhance fraud detection, enabling safer online transactions [23]. This paper outlines how cloud computing reduces the operational burden of in-house IT systems by offloading tasks to service providers. It discusses benefits like improved security, scalability, cost-efficiency, and real-time access. A hybrid cloud model is proposed to optimize virtualization and minimize scheduling overheads [24]. The paper explores rigorous verification techniques like theorem proving and model checking for secure smart contract development. While identity tools and fraud prevention aren't detailed, the focus is on preventing system-level failures. Formal verification is crucial for building reliable blockchain applications [25]. Blockchain and machine learning are integrated to detect Advanced Persistent Threats in Cyber-Physical Systems. Smart contracts log and secure predictions, maintaining data traceability. Although identity management is not addressed, the approach enhances system resilience against tampering and false alarms [26].

A decentralized governance model was proposed for cross-border AI regulation using blockchain. It incorporates smart contracts, DIDs, and data verification for compliance and trust. Security features aim to prevent fraud while ensuring privacy and regulatory alignment globally [27]. The study explores hybrid system integration using quantum and classical services, focusing on quantum factorization via Amazon

Braket. It outlines challenges in merging traditional and quantum service architectures. Recommendations are provided for advancing quantum service-oriented computing [28]. The paper focuses on AI's role in strengthening digital privacy and defending against adversarial attacks. While integrated with blockchain, it does not detail smart contracts, DIDs, or fraud-prevention specifics. The emphasis is on AI-driven system resilience and secure architectures [29]. The study reviews literature from 2010 to 2020 on big data use in education and its role in improving teaching and learning. It explores data mining techniques, tools, and validation methods. The research identifies parameters and practical applications to enhance the education process [30]. This study highlights blockchain's decentralized architecture for securing health records and improving confidentiality. While smart contracts and DIDs are not deeply explored, it emphasizes the potential for fraud prevention through inherent blockchain features [31]. The paper presents smart contracts, DIDs, and cryptographic consensus as core features of secure, automated data transactions. Data integrity and transparency minimize fraud risk across sectors. Blockchain's immutability ensures auditable, tamper-proof recordkeeping for enhanced trust [32]. Smart contracts, decentralized identity, and cryptographic protocols enhance transaction reliability and security. The paper emphasizes fraud reduction and user autonomy through secure, verifiable records. Blockchain's decentralized design transforms global transaction systems in sectors like finance and logistics [33].

The paper emphasizes blockchain's role in ensuring secure, tamper-proof data exchange within IoT environments. Though it lacks detail on smart contracts and DIDs, it underscores fraud prevention by robust verification. Integration with AI and IoT supports industrial innovation and security [34]. The paper discusses smart contracts, immutable data, and decentralized identity for securing IoT ecosystems. It highlights consensus-based fraud prevention and authentication enhancement. Blockchain ensures transparency and robustness in smart city, commercial IoT, and healthcare applications [35]. The implementation of a call-and-response mechanism to request servers to verify data integrity is mandatory in public systems. The data servers are not very motivated to follow the audit's rules. To ensure service integrity, the IoT device is responsible for verifying the accuracy of the fog's work prior to issuing payment, a process that is not necessarily computationally viable for resource-constrained IoT devices. Giving a third-party auditor unfettered access to client files in a private network can be a bad idea because people are understandably worried about their privacy. The paper details blockchain advancements such as smart contracts and decentralized identifiers to streamline international payments. Verification protocols strengthen data integrity, and enhanced security measures mitigate fraud. These innovations boost both efficiency and trust in global transactions [36]. The purpose of this study is to verify that fog nodes built to support the Internet of Things deliver as promised. The FISIE system is a blockchain-based framework that we developed based on relevant research. It improves the verification of fog integrity, monetization of fog services, and mutual authentication between IoT fog and fog. Implementing low-latency mutual authentication using blockchain technology in the fog layer has undeniable benefits. In order to keep the IoT-fog system

running smoothly and guarantee auditing cooperation from fog nodes, it is essential to establish a system of incentives and penalties.

3 FISIE System Overview

Using external service audits to guarantee the integrity of fog nodes, incentives and punishments to encourage collaboration between IoT and fog, and optimization of mutual authentication between IoT and fog to monetize fog services are the three main goals of the FISIE system. The Identity & Integrity Management Smart Contract (IIMSC) accomplishes the goals by integrating with the Internet of Things, an oracle and fog computing, a semi-trusted third party off-chain. It is more likely that other systems will adopt the FISIE mechanism if the blockchain is widely used. Thus, whereas Ethereum is used by default in our implementation [20], alternative implementations may use smart contract-enabled blockchain platforms like Solana1 or Layer 2 solutions like Arbitrum2 or Optimism3 to improve scalability and decrease processing costs. The following are the three primary IIMSC processes: Integrity Verification, Identity and Payment Management. The main features of IIMSC are displayed in Fig. 1.

3.1 Identity Management

IIMSC organizes information into lookup tables, including current token holdings, fog reputation, and Internet of Things (IoT) and fog blockchain addresses. Fog nodes and IoT devices can authenticate with one another using these lookup tables. All fog nodes and IoT devices need to register with IIMSC before they can interact with the FISIE system. In order to verify the identity of an entity and make payment transactions easier, blockchain technology uses addresses. The purpose of publishing

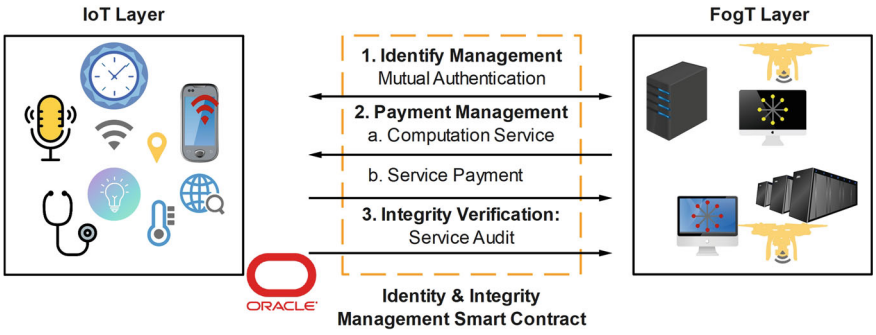


Fig. 1 The implementation of a smart contract on the blockchain is crucial to the FISIE system

the current holdings of IoT tokens is to guarantee that IoT devices has sufficient funds to cover fog service costs. In order to use the FISIE system, fog devices must first deposit a collateral deposit, and then they can store tokens for fog service payments. The dependability of a fog node can be inferred from its reputation score and collateral deposits, which reveal the node's past actions—whether honest or malicious. As a result, IoT devices can use fog reliability to choose fog nodes to transmit data.

3.2 Payment Management

An Internet of Things (IoT) device can submit a service request to a fog node after the two have authenticated with each other. By utilizing ECC encryption, this process is carried out off-chain. Using the IIMSC lookup tables, a predetermined amount is sent from the funds of the IoT device to the service payment funds of the fog node after the service is finished and returned to the device. Until the fog node moves the funds out of IIMSC, they will remain there.

3.3 Integrity Verification

There have been no academic contributions on the topic of fog service integrity enforcement as far as we are aware. Using a call-and-response method, our goal is to set up an auditing system for fog services that checks result from fog nodes in reaction to request of the IoT. To boost fog nodes to contribute in call and answer and discourage them from failing the service audit, which is a departure from their past contributions, we have implemented a new penalty.

Because of their limited resources, we assume that IoT devices cannot verify the fog node's service correctness. As a result, we present an auditing service framework that enables an anonymous oracle to validate fog node integrity. It is possible that a fog node's actions would change if it knew the oracle was inspecting them. Oracle uses a Zero-Knowledge Proof of Membership—really just another IoT device masquerading—to get the fog node to behave properly. It discusses AI and cryptographic tools like Zero-Knowledge Proofs to strengthen blockchain security. It focuses on improving confidentiality and resilience through adaptive consensus but omits smart contract automation and DIDs. The work contributes to overcoming blockchain limitations using intelligent security techniques [37].

3.4 Incentive and Penalty Mechanisms

An auditor's presence acts as an intrinsic deterrent to malicious activity by fog nodes. A punishment system to reduce the fog node's reputation score and collateral deposit

the moment we notice a poor response from the fog node. The reputation score of the fog node can increase up to a certain limit when an audit is successful. An elevated reputation score may result in an increased number of service requests from IoT, hence generating additional service charges. Consequently, this compensation serves as an inducement for fog nodes to act with integrity.

4 Domain Background and Setups

While outlining their roles inside the FISIE system, this part provides a baseline understanding of cryptography, the IoT fog environment, and blockchain.

4.1 Blockchain

Decentralized ledgers that enable operation in a trustless environment are public blockchains, such as Ethereum and Bitcoin. These networks employ block consensus among all immutable nodes. Public blockchains include features like as fault tolerance, auditability, and pseudo-anonymity. To improve privacy and security in Industrial IoT and IoT applications, blockchain technology is considered a crucial innovation.

(1) **Smart Contracts:** Smart contracts are multi-party agreements that can self-execute when specific criteria are satisfied. All blockchain transactions, including smart contracts are permanent, immutable, and auditable. The control of who has access to what data collected by the Internet of Things is a common use for blockchain smart contracts. These contracts have the ability to solve the privacy and security problems associated with the IoT. If your blockchain allows smart contracts, the FISIE system is used to implement the IIMSC. Smart contracts automate cybersecurity compliance and enforce uniform protocols across systems. Blockchain ensures data integrity through immutable logs, though decentralized identity is not directly addressed. The framework reduces fraud by automating threat responses and security policy enforcement [38].

(2) **Oracles:** In many cases, the execution conditions of a smart contract are determined by looking at facts from the actual world. Still, the blockchain functions autonomously from the actual internet environment, therefore it requires a separate organization to send pertinent external data to the blockchain. For smart contracts to include external data, an oracle must be used. Due to the fact that oracles do not rely on the blockchain, it is crucial to assess the reliability of the oracle in addition to the external data sources. Consequently, centralized oracles are infrequently employed due to the untrustworthiness of data transmitted from a singular centralized source. Alternatively, a dependable data stream can be established by using many decentralized oracles that cross-verify each other. In

order to activate the associated smart contracts and assess fog nodes, the FISIE system is dependent on external decentralized oracles.

4.2 Definitions and Settings for Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)

The FISIE system makes use of ECC, a public-key cryptographic techniques that generates keys using a base point over a finite field and an elliptic curve that is generally acknowledged.

Consider the finite field Fp where p is a big prime number. Starting at a point G on the elliptic curve E, were, public key P and secret key k by

$$P = k \cdot G \tag{1}$$

The restricted field E has G "added" $(\cdot)$ k times.

(1) **Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)** architecture was employed by Ethereum and Bitcoin to authenticate blockchain transactions. A description of the secp256k1 elliptic curve is given by

$$E : y^2 = x^3 + 7 \tag{2}$$

and generates 256-bit keys. Despite previous methods that needed a third party to generate device keys and set the elliptic curve parameters, researchers reduce the process by using ECC characteristics of secure IoT-fog communication.

(2) **Encryption***:* Consider two entities, A and B, each with their own set of public and private keys. A has PB and kB, whereas B has kA and PB. Because of, A and B can form a symmetric key.

$$k_B P_A = k_B \cdot (k_A G) = k_A \cdot (k_B G) = k_A P_B \tag{3}$$

Communication between A and B can be encrypted and decrypted using symmetric encryption schemes like AES with the help of this key.

(3) **ECDSA***:* For both Bitcoin and Ethereum blockchains, ECDSA is the principal algorithm for creating and verifying signatures. The blockchain will not approve a transaction unless the signature is valid. Consider the following scenario: User A transmits a signature over the network to authenticate with Verifier B. A valid signature s can be used by B verifier to determine public key PA using ECDSA. A is not required to furnish PA to B as a result. All signatures utilized in the remainder of this document are ECDSA signatures.

(4) **One-way hash function***:* Our function $\{\{0, 1\}^* \mapsto \{0, 1\}^{256}$ is safe one-way 256-bit hash function. SHA-256 and Keccak-256 are examples of effective hash

algorithms exhibiting this trait, utilized by Ethereum and Bitcoin ECDSA. Truncating a value up to n bytes is what the operation ||n is defined as. The public key P of a user is represented by the address H(P)||20.

4.3 Physical Structures

In order to work with any existing IoT-fog infrastructure, our proposed architecture is made to be as ubiquitous as feasible. Fog nodes and IoT devices are both distributed and diversified. Three layers make up the architecture: the IoT, fog, and cloud.

(1) **Internet of Things layer:** A disparate collection of devices with varying degrees of processing power and accessibility to resources make up the Internet of Things (IoT) layer. Our technique makes use of devices with limited processing and storage capacities to process data at fog layer and perhaps transmit to long-term storage in the cloud. The IoT devices that make up the FISIE system are referred to as I. The necessary encryption keys can be stored by any Internet of Things device I own, and it can communicate with maximum levels.
(2) **Fog layer:** For a blockchain to enable smart contracts, the fog layer must have oracles, fog nodes, and blockchain nodes. The FISIE system uses the sets F and O to represent fog nodes and oracles. Some of the fog nodes in F may be able to run a blockchain oracle, a light blockchain node, or even both, depending on their resource capacity.
(3) **Cloud layer:** The data centers that make up the Cloud are enormous and have enough of processing power and space to store data for a long time. Both the fog layer's post-processing and the Internet of Things (IoT) layers might provide data that needs storage.

5 Identity and Integrity Management Smart Contract (IIMSC)—First Steps

Every IIMSC function takes a signature s as its last argument, and before the function runs, ECDSA verifies the signature. Therefore, when outlining the functions of IIMSC, we do not include the signature validation. The goals of the IIMSC lookup tables and functions are threefold: (1) to simplify the process of mutual authentication; (2) to make the payment process for IoT-fog services more secure and accountable; and (3) to establish mechanisms for incentives and penalties to ensure fog integrity. This paper offers a comprehensive overview of all IIMSC capabilities, delineated sequentially, with each function elaborated upon in the following sections.

The procedure commences with the Initialisation() function.

Three functions are engaged in the registration process: Oracle_registration(), IoT_registration(Ether: E_2), and Fog_registration(Ether: E_1).

The fund management procedure encompasses Fog_withdraw_funds(float t), IoT_deposite_funds(Ether: E_3), and IoT_withdraw_funds(float t).

The system employs Fog_remove() and IoT_remove() for removal purposes.

Payments from IoT to Fog are managed by IoT_fog_payment(float d).

Ultimately, audit outcomes are evaluated utilizing Fog_reward(Address a_1: Ring-sign. R_1) and Fog_penalize(Address a_2: Ring-sign. R_2).

5.1 Lookup Tables

A reliable third party is essential to secure mutual authentication methods since they confirm the identification of all participants. We therefore propose that fog nodes and IoT devices be added to the blockchain's respective databases for lookups. To verify the identification of the entity being registered, the registration process makes use of ECDSA signatures. As a result, the lookup databases contain only pre-verified, publicly accessible registration data. In order to have fog nodes and IoT devices registered on the blockchain, we need them to put money down as a payment and as collateral. Because Ethereum is the cryptocurrency that powers our default implementation, any discussion of deposits, payments, or funds will be in terms of Ether.

The domains in the Internet of Things lookup table TI are specified as for every IoT device i in the set I.

- **IoTAddress:** This is the location of the first Internet of Things device, and it is also a shortened version of the public key for that device, H(Pi)||20.
- **AvailFunds:** These payments are utilized to pay for fog services. They are available on the Internet of Things device i.

Every fog node f in the set F has its own set of fields defined in the fog lookup table TF.

- **FogAddress:** The abbreviated form of the Internet of Things public key, which is also the address of node f, is H(Pf)||20.
- **Deposit:** Node f of the fog delivered the collateral. In the event of a service audit failure, a portion of the deposit can be confiscated.
- **AvailFunds:** When fog node f receives money for Internet of Things services, it has funds available to spend. These funds can be erased whenever the fog node desires.
- **Reputation:** Fog node f's reliability rating, We update the reputation score after a service audit depending on the results. Internet of things devices can select fog nodes to collaborate based on its rankings.

We refer to these entries as tfA, tfAF, tfD, and tfR for records tf $\in$ TF of fog node f, accordingly.

Lookup tables are often executed on-chain by default.

Another option is to have the tables hosted by an outbound oracle that acts as a representative of the blockchain; this kind of oracle is known as a reverse oracle. The 'LastUpdateHeader' column is an additional field that we add to both tables here. In the 'LastUpdateHeader' column of each table entry you may find the blockchain header that corresponds to the most current record update. The data in the off-chain lookup table are likewise guaranteed to be immutable by quoting this hash in the lookup tables.

To further facilitate the registration of any oracle interested in taking part in the service auditing process, we provide an on-chain oracle lookup table TO. The OracleAddress field, marked as to, is the only one in TO. A for the oracle o in O, where o is a member of TO.

5.2 IIMSC Pooled Funds

Each oracle, fog node, and Internet of Things (IoT) device makes a deposit when they register, which can serve as either collateral or payment. The transmission of these cash is a part of the payment and penalty processes. The smart contract compiles all of the money that has been invested in IIMSC, and the device lookup table specifies the tokens each device has. A physical movement of monies between devices is thus not involved in any transactions carried out by IIMSC. Withdrawal updates the lookup table with the new values, and token alterations take place at the same time.

6 Identity and Integrity Management Smart Contract (IIMSC)—Identity Management

The authentication process between the fog and the IoT is made easier by the identity management components of IIMSC. The IoT device must verify the fog node's registration in TF and make sure it has a sufficient reputation score before sending a request. In a similar manner, the fog node needs to validate device's identity to validate its TI registration and determine whether it has the funds to reimburse the fog node.

6.1 Registration

Registration on the blockchain is a prerequisite for any entity wishing to interact with the FISIE system once IIMSC is activated.

(1) **Fog registration**

For each fog node $f \in F$, when the deposit amount d exceeds the threshold IIMSC.D, the FogRegistration routine processes a deposit E_d of value d. The usable initial balance is computed as the remaining amount $v = d-$ IIMSC.D, while IIMSC.D is retained as a security deposit. The fog node's initial reputation score is assigned as $r =$ IIMSC.RInit. After validating that the address $a_f = H(P_f)\|20$ does not already exist in the fog node registry TF, a new entry $t_f \in TF$ is created with the parameters: $t_f.D \leftarrow$ IIMSC.D, $t_f.A \leftarrow a_f$, $t_f.AF \leftarrow v$, and $t_f \cdot R \leftarrow r$.

(2) **IoT registration**

When an IoT device i ∈ I submits an initial Ether deposit Eu with a quantity greater than 0, the IoT_registration function will accept it. The new record ti ∈ TI is updated to include ·ti · A· ← ·ai · and · ti.AF· ← ·u when it is confirmed that ai == H(Pi)|20 was not in TI.

(3) **Oracle registration**

To securely broadcast its oracle outputs, an oracle $o \in O$, identified by its public key P_Ω, must first complete a registration process on the blockchain. Accordingly, a function named OracleRegistration is defined to generate a corresponding record t_o within the oracle registry set TO. During this process, the oracle's address is derived as $t_o.A \leftarrow H(P_\Omega)\|20$ and stored in the newly created record.

6.2 Removal

In order to exit the network, an IoT device i from the set I can call the IoT_remove function. The record is deleted from TI and no funds are transmitted to IoT device i from record H(Pi)‖20.

There are two ways a fog node can leave the system: voluntarily or by force. The Fog remove method is called in both cases. The record H(Pf)‖20 is removed from TF once the fog node initiates the Fog remove function, which returns the remaining deposit and any available funds to fog node f. At any given time, the deposit of fog might be 0, or reputation score could drop less than IIMSC. All funds, including deposits, are repaid and fog node was removed from TF when the fog removal mechanism is automatically activated at RMin.

6.3 Mutual Verification

We delineate the mutual authentication procedure between IoT device i ∈ I and fog node f ∈ F.

1. The fog node f receives a digital signature s_i from the Internet of Things (IoT) device i.

2. Using the received signature s_i, fog node f retrieves the public key P_i, and queries $H(P_i)\|20$ to derive the address of device i from the loT device registry table T_I.
3. If the loT device address is not found in T_I, mutual authentication fails and the process is terminated. Otherwise, proceed to step 4.
4. Fog node f sends its own signature s_f to the loT device i.
5. The loT device i concurrently performs the following actions:
   (a) Extracts the public key P_f from the received signature s_f, and queries $H(P_f)\|20$ in the fog node registry T_F to determine the address of fog node f.
   (b) Verifies that it has a predefined reputation threshold $i.R$, and ensures that the reputation score $t_f.R$ of node f meets or exceeds this threshold.
6. Proceed to step 7 if the reputation threshold is satisfied in step 5 and the fog address is located. Without it, mutual authentication is useless.
7. After completing mutual authentication, fog node f and IoT device i have set up a symmetric key Pfki = Pikf to communicate securely. They might start working together.

As shown in Fig. 2, the procedure of mutual authentication is summarized.

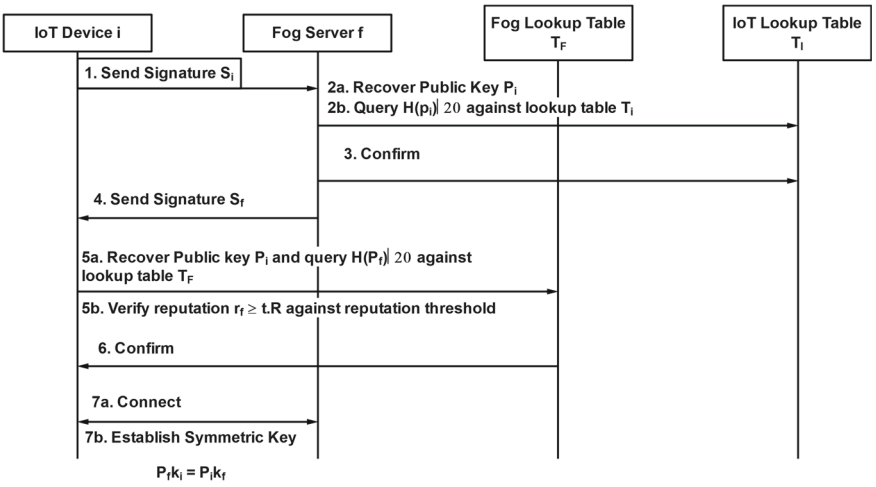

IoT Device i
Fog Server f
Fog Lookup Table T_F
IoT Lookup Table T_I
1. Send Signature S_i
2a. Recover Public Key P_i
2b. Query $H(p_i)\|20$ against lookup table T_I
3. Confirm
4. Send Signature S_f
5a. Recover Public key P_i and query $H(P_f)\|20$ against lookup table T_F
5b. Verify reputation $r_f \geq t.R$ against reputation threshold
6. Confirm
7a. Connect
7b. Establish Symmetric Key
$P_fk_i = P_ik_f$

Fig. 2 Each function signs data, enabling derivation of its public key for mutual authentication

7 Identity and Integrity Management Smart Contract (IIMSC)—Payment Management

Improving the security and accountability of the payment process for fog and IoT services is the goal of IIMSC's payment management duties. If there is ever a dispute about a payment, the transparency of the records can be used thanks to the blockchain's recording of all transactions. Once both parties have verified their identities, the IoT device can ask the fog node to calculate something, and the node will repay some of the money.

7.1 Funds Deposit and Withdrawal

Once the device registered within IIMSC, it has the ability to add or remove funds designated for service charges.

(1) **Internet of Things funds***:* An Internet of Things (loT) device can increase its available reserve after completing registration on the blockchain. The loT_Add_ Funds function facilitates the addition of supplementary funds E_u where the amount $u > 0$. The corresponding record $t_i \in T_I$, identified by the address $t_i.A = H(P_i)\|20$, is updated by increasing its accessible funds: $t_i.AF \leftarrow t_i.AF + u$. Similarly, to withdraw funds, the IoT_Withdraw_Funds function can be invoked with a withdrawal amount $u \in (0, t_i.AF]$. Upon execution, the record $t_i \in T_I$ is updated as $t_i.AF \leftarrow t_i.AF - u$, and the equivalent amount E_u (in Ether) is transferred to the loT device i.

(2) **Fog funds***:* Once fog node f begins processing loT queries, it starts accumulating earnings. To retrieve a portion of its accumulated funds, the fog node can initiate a withdrawal request using the Fog Withdraw Funds function, specifying an amount $u \in \left(0, t_f.AF\right]$. The function processes the request by locating the corresponding record $t_f \in T_F$, identified by the address $t_f.A = H\left(P_f\right)\|20$. The record is then updated by deducting the withdrawal amount:

$$t_f.AF \leftarrow t_f.AF - u$$

Subsequently, an equivalent amount E_u (denominated in Ether) is transferred to the fog node f.

7.2 Internet of Things—Fog Service and Payment

Following the successful completion of the mutual authentication protocol and the establishment of a shared symmetric key $P_{ikf} = P_{fk_i}$ between fog node $f \in F$ and loT device $i \in I$, the loT device is permitted to request computational support from

the fog node using symmetric encryption. The loT-Fog Service Procedure is defined as follows:

1. The loT device i transmits a computational request containing a data package g, its digital signature s_i, and a proposed payment amount d to fog node f.
2. If fog node f refuses the request or does not respond within the predefined time window, a "reject" response is issued, and the transaction is terminated at this step.
3. Otherwise, fog node f proceeds to process the data package g, generating a result τ.
4. The computed output τ is then transmitted from fog node f to the loT device i.
5. Subsequently, the loT_Fog_Payment function is invoked by the loT device i, accepting two parameters: the agreed payment amount d and the signature s_i.
6. The loT_Fog_Payment function authenticates the signature s_i and facilitates the transfer of funds by updating the corresponding records: an amount d is deducted from $t_i.AF$ and added to $t_f.AF$, where $t_i \in T_I$ and $t_f \in T_F$.

7.3 Matching, Negotiating, and Disputes

The standard implementations of service payment and mutual authentication described above are effective, excluding fog selection, payment disputes and price negotiation. In actuality, there is scope for adaptability to mitigate these problems inside these procedures.

Internet of Things devices need to select the fog node they want to use for service before they can engage in mutual authentication. In order to couple Internet of Things devices with available fog resource capacity and fog nodes according to proximity, there are a plethora of sophisticated matching algorithms available.

When an IoT device makes a request and its proposed payment to the fog node for authorization, the fog node may respond with a counter-offer. The fog node and IoT device may engage in negotiations to establish a mutually agreed pricing. An auction-based system where fog nodes compete for Internet of Things (IoT) requests can incorporate the matching and negotiating procedures.

Upon completion of the service process and the return of the processed result τ of package g by the fog node, it is the responsibility of the Internet of Things device to initiate function of fog_payment. If the IoT device fails to receive a prompt answer from the fog, it may initiate a dispute. It is important to process IoT requests quickly and activate the payment smart contract promptly because the dispute resolution processes can be expensive for fog nodes and IoT devices.

8 Identity and Integrity Management Smart Contract (IIMSC)—Integrity Verification

The consistency and safety of the IoT fog environment can be enhanced by routinely reviewing the processing outputs of fog nodes. For fog node integrity assessment and confirmation, we rely on trustworthy decentralized oracles. A pair of keys, one labeled as an 'Internet of Things device' and the other as an oracle, are utilized by an oracle o ∈ O. Because every audit is sent from the same IP associated with the Internet of Things lookup table TI, fog nodes interpret it for a regular IoT request. It is critical to verify the fog node's inherent behavior when no one is watching (Figs. 3 and 4).

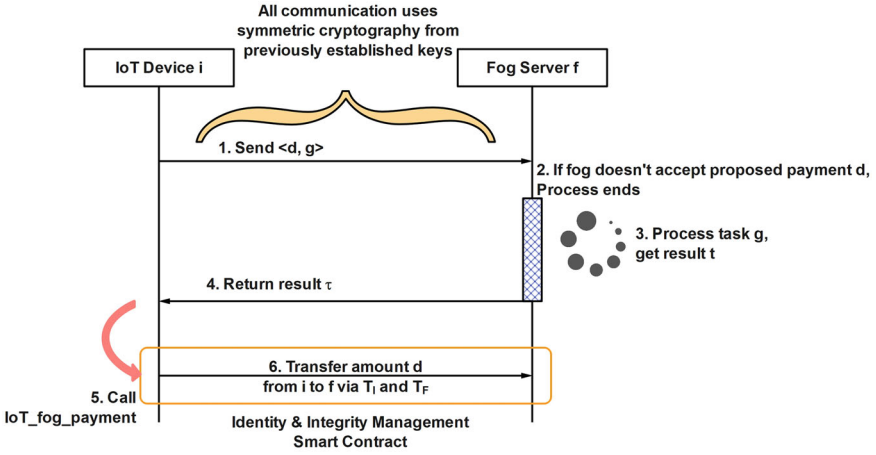
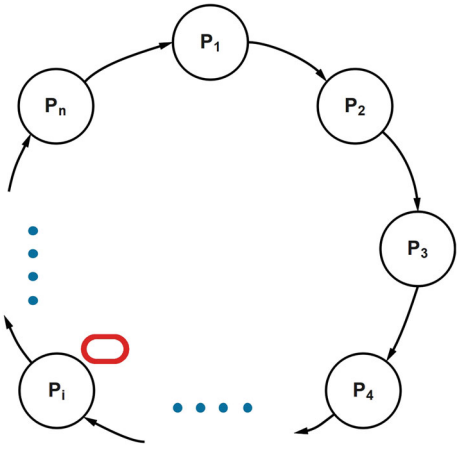

All communication uses symmetric cryptography from previously established keys
IoT Device i
Fog Server f
1. Send <d, g>
2. If fog doesn't accept proposed payment d, Process ends
3. Process task g, get result t
4. Return result τ
5. Call IoT_fog_payment
6. Transfer amount d from i to f via T_I and T_F
Identity & Integrity Management Smart Contract

Fig. 3 The process flow for processing and payments in the IoT fog

Fig. 4 The oracle identity in internet of things concealed by ring signature including zero-knowledge proof



8.1 Ring Signature—Proof of Membership

An oracle o belonging to the set O is given two key pairs, denoted as (kω, Pω) and (kΩ, P℧). The oracle o registers with the blockchain before the audit as an oracle and an Internet of Things device using the key pairs (PΩ, kΩ). These key pairings produce unique validations across many tables. Oracle o's identity within the IoT table remains hidden from fog nodes and the blockchain. Therefore, the oracle needs to confirm that the audit originated from a legitimate request for an IoT service before it can upload the audit's findings to the blockchain. While hiding its actual Internet of Things (IoT) address, it must display its affiliation with the IoT lookup database.

As previously shown to be essential in blockchain applications, this problem is related to zero-knowledge proofs for set membership. We have decided to build a ring signature mechanism using the publicly available data in the IoT lookup table.

By the initial selection of $Tj = q{\cdot}G$, the ultimate selection of s_j. 'completes' the ring.

$$\begin{aligned} T_j &= \sigma_j \cdot G + c_j P_j \\ &= \left(q - c_j k_j\right) \cdot G + c_j k_j \cdot G \\ &= q \cdot G \end{aligned}$$

8.2 Reward and Penalty Functions

In response to service audit results, IIMSC adjusts fog nodes' deposit and reputation scores. A ring signature Rϋ is received by both the Fog_penalize and Fog_reward functions from an oracle o ∈ O. There is an address in TI linked with oracle o if the ring signature is authentic.

1. **Passed Audit: Reward Mechanism**

When a fog node $f \in F$ successfully passes a service audit, the oracle $o \in O$, identified by its public key P_Ω, executes the Fog_Reward function using a ring signature R_ω and the fog node's address a_f. The function performs the following validations:

- Confirms that $H(P_\Omega)\|20 \in T_O$ (oracle is registered),
- Ensures $a_f \in T_F$ (fog node is registered),
- Verifies the authenticity of the ring signature R_ω.

Upon successful validation, the fog node's reputation is incremented by IIMSC. r^+, but not exceeding the maximum allowable reputation IIMSC.RMax. The updated reputation is computed as:

$$t_f \cdot R \leftarrow \min\left\{\text{IIMSC.}RMax, t_f \cdot R + \text{ IIMSC. r}^+\right\}$$

2. **Failed Audit: Penalty Mechanism**

If a fog node $f \in F$ fails a service audit conducted by oracle $o \in O$ using public key P_Ω, the oracle triggers the Fog_Penalize function, supplying the fog address a_f and ring signature R_ω.

The function proceeds with:

- Validating $H(P_\Omega)\|20 \in T_O$,
- Confirming $a_f \in T_F$,
- Verifying the authenticity of ring signature R_ω. After verification, the function applies two penalties:
- Reputation Reduction:

$$t_f \cdot R \leftarrow t_f \cdot R - \text{IIMSC.r}^-$$

2. Deposit Deduction:

$$t_f \cdot D \leftarrow \max\left\{t_f \cdot D - \text{IIMSC.}^-, 0\right\}$$

The amount deducted from the deposit is redistributed among the registered loT devices. If either of the following conditions is met:

- The fog node's updated reputation $t_f \cdot R$ drops below the minimum threshold IIMSC.RMin, or
- The deposit $t_f.D$ becomes zero, then the Fog_Removal process is automatically initiated, and the fog node is deregistered.

8.3 Service Audit

The oracle $o \in O$ utilizes two distinct addresses for its operations: The IoT communication address is defined as $a_\omega = H(P_\omega)\|20$, which is used for interacting with fog nodes. The blockchain communication address is defined as $a_\Omega = H(P_\Omega)\|20$, which is used for all blockchain-related transactions.

(1) A symmetric key Pωkf = Pfkω is established after the fog node f and Oracle o have authenticated with each other.
(2) Oracle O follows the steps to transmit a package to f.
(3) Concurrently, oracle *o*

   (a) is patiently waiting for the result τ_f from f.
   (b) determines the anticipated result τ_ω of g.

(4) Rω = {c1,σ, P} is calculated by Oracle o, and the predicted result τ_ω is compared to the fog result τ_f.

(a) Fog node f has successfully completed the service audit if $\tau_f = \tau\Omega$. With the oracle signature sΩ, fog address af, and ring signature Rω, Oracle o calls the Fog reward function.
(b) Else, when the service audit was unsuccessful and $\tau_f = \tau\Omega$. With the oracle signature sΩ, fog address af, and ring signature Rω, Oracle o calls the Fog Penalize function.

(1) **Oracle payment*:*** The FISIE system benefits from the time and processing resources used when an oracle o conducts a service audit. Furthermore, the audited fog node will receive payment from oracle o for the service since it is passing off an audit as an Internet of Things service request. It is only fair that the oracle be adequately paid for its services in both instances.

Any time an IoT device makes a call to IoT_fog_payment(d), IIMSC automatically takes a service fee. In other words, the service fee is a tiny percentage of the total money that IIMSC receives. It is IIMSC's policy to combine these fees. Part of the pool goes to the oracles, while the remaining half goes to the smart contract owners.

(2) **Scheduling policy*:*** The policy for audit scheduling specifies the frequency at which oracles are allowed to conduct service audits. Whenever η is defined by IIMSC, one oracle is supposed to finish one service audit per request by default. Service audits might not be carried out often enough, regardless of whether there are sufficient fees to compensate the oracle fairly with a large η. On the other hand, if η is small, service audits occur more frequently; therefore, bigger fees would need to be deducted from Internet of Things service payments to cover the costs of the oracle. For service audits that evaluate the system as a whole, other, more advanced scheduling policies can be explored. This may be addressed in further projects.

9 IIMSC—Penalty and Incentive Mechanisms

In order to incentivize and penalize fog nodes for encouraging integrity, we leverage the lookup tables, IIMSC settings, and integrity verification functions.

9.1 Monetization of Fog

An loT device $i \in I$ can request computational services from a fog node in exchange for a proposed payment amount d, provided that $d \leq t_i.AF$, where $t_i.AF$ represents the available funds of device i.

In other words, the suggested payment can be met by the available cash on the IoT device. The IoT device pays the fog node when the node has fulfilled the IoT device's request. As a financial incentive, this Internet of Things payment encourages fog nodes to provide IoT services. A service payment initiated by an loT device results

in a deduction from its available funds in the loT registry table T_1. These available funds represent the cumulative total of all deposits made and not yet spent within the IIMSC system by the loT device-spanning the periods before, during, and after its registration.

9.2 Deposition of Fog Collateral

An oracle, posing as an IoT device, submits a service audit to fog node f on a periodic basis. The fog node would respond appropriately, either positively or negatively, if it were unaware that the request was originating from an oracle. In the event that the response is incorrect, for instance in the event that fog node f did not pass the service audit, a portion of the fog deposited money tf.D could be moved from TF to IoT. If fog nodes fail a service audit, they will lose some of their collateral, which is a monetary penalty. When a fog node's deposit is completely depleted, or when tf.D = 0, it is eliminated from TF and, by extension, the FISIE system.

Any extra deposits are automatically turned into available funds, and the default amount of the collateral deposit is IIMSC.D. Alternately, more advanced deposit deduction or reduction methods and more malleable deposit levels could be made feasible by the introduction of IIMSC. As an example, IIMSC has the potential to lower the required deposit from fog nodes that behave over the long run. Here, the extra money that the fog node put in above the newly lowered deposit limit becomes accessible for withdrawal. To further encourage fog nodes to act responsibly in the long run, this functionality is being implemented. The study introduces a blockchain-secured AI framework for predictive cybersecurity and anomaly detection. It stresses ledger-based data integrity but omits specific features like smart contracts or DIDs. The model enhances IT risk management through proactive analytics [39, 40].

9.3 Fog Reputation

Lookup table TF assigns a reputation score to fog nodes. The findings of a service audit are used by IIMSC to update the reputation score. Accordingly, a fog node's standing in TF will decrease if it is found to have failed a service audit, and it will rise if it is found to have passed. Internet of Things devices can sort fog nodes by reputation before deciding which one to contact. In order to maintain a good reputation and perhaps receive more Internet of Things (IoT) requests (i.e., payments) for its services, the fog node should always act correctly. For fog nodes, this means more service rewards after a successful audit. On the flip side, fog nodes incur a service penalty due to reputation loss in the event that they do not pass a service audit. There is a minimum reputation score (IIMSC.RMin) and an upper limit (IIMSC.RMax) for each fog node. When a node's score falls below the minimum, it is eliminated from the system.

The default behavior of IIMSC is to lower the reputation score by IIMSC. r^- and raise it by IIMSC. r^+ where IIMSC. $r^- >$ IIMSC. r^+. Nevertheless, more advanced methods can be employed to determine and update reputation score, factoring in things like the quantity of Internet of Things (IoT) requests and compliance with service level agreements (SLAs).

9.4 Distribution of Fog Deposit

Any fog node that fails an audit will have its collateral deposit on the fog lookup table TF decreased by $d- -$. Still linked to IIMSC is the related Ether E_{d-}. Therefore, we've decided to divide up the money IIMSC. The d^- amount among a portion of the Internet of Things devices $\overline{I} \subseteq I$ by adding the same amount to the available funds in the lookup table, T_I. In other words, for every $i \in J$, we raise the available funds $\mathbf{t}_i \cdot AF \leftarrow \mathbf{t}_i \cdot AF + d_i, \forall i \in \overline{I}$, we choose an amount $di. > 0$ such that $\sum_{i \in \overline{I}} d_i =$ IIMSC.d^-.

By default, the IIMSC system distributes the deducted deposit from a fog node $f \in F$ equally among all registered loT devices. This is calculated using the formula $\frac{d^-}{n}$, where d^- represents the deducted amount and $n = |T_I|$ is the total number of loT device entries in the registry. The distribution strategy doesn't have to be equal or weighted; for example, it might only go to Internet of Things (IoT) devices that f has already serviced.

10 Integrity Simulation

No other contribution that we are aware of provides a way to both reward and punish failure to maintain an IoT-fog system's integrity. We will start by checking the FISIE system for security flaws. By simulating audits on a set of hostile nodes, we can determine how well our alternative solution works. Additionally, we compare the efficacy of several auditing scheduling policies by establishing them.

10.1 Discussion on Security Analysis

The FISIE system facilitates streamlined processes for payment, service delivery, and mutual authentication between IoT devices and fog nodes, while ensuring secure and accountable communication within the IoT–fog environment.

(1) **Encrypted Communication***:* A 256-bit ECC protocol encrypts all direct communication between the IoT and fog. An ECC key size of 256 bits provides security on par with the previous standard for encryption, RSA, which had a key

size of 2072 bits. Additionally, the majority of blockchains are already utilizing the secp256k1 elliptic curve that was suggested. Therefore, the FISIE system remains secure since no external parties are required to specify the system's cryptographic parameters.

(2) **Lookup Tables*:*** In the lookup table, the address associated with a certain fog node or Internet of Things device is its blockchain address, which is produced by hashing its public key. While devices A and B are communicating, device B is able to verify A's address in tables by obtaining A's public key from the signature issued by its secret key. In other words, a third party C cannot pose as A without first obtaining A's secret key. For this reason, the 256-bit ECC protocol is as secure as the mutual authentication and identity verification process.

(3) **Payment*:*** The IIMSC handles the recording of all payments on the blockchain. Therefore, it is used to confirm the validity of any claims in the event of a disagreement. Extra features include entity registration with IIMSC, which could lead to future implementations such as assigning a reputation score to IoT devices to record the frequency of service payment failures or temporarily freezing IoT assets until a dispute is resolved.

(4) **Ring Signature:** When communicating with a fog node, an oracle pretends to be an IoT device by using an address aω. Afterwards, the oracle uses an oracle address aΩ to send the audit findings to IIMSC. The oracle audit submission includes a ring signature, which is a proof of membership with zero knowledge. It proves that the audit was done using an IoT address. Due to the public nature of blockchain records, fog nodes may be able to guess which IoT devices are in the ring and act as an oracle. For a ring of n IoT addresses, the likelihood that every given address belongs to the oracle is 1/n, and it decreases as n increases. Nevertheless, it may become expensive for IIMSC to perform more verification computations and for the blockchain to allocate more space for bigger values of n. Therefore, it is necessary to strike a balance in order to raise n to a fair level. For transparent verification, another possibility is for oracle o to send a ring signature Rω to a secondary oracle such as TrueBit, where n is a large integer. Next, the outcome is communicated to IIMSC by the computer oracle.

10.2 Auditing Sampling Policies

We select a smaller subset (FC) of the fog nodes from the larger set (F) for each fog node size (C). Members in FC can have their service audits done in a sequential or concurrent fashion. Even when running sequentially, fog nodes should still be clustered to reduce the number of times an audit can be applied to the same node. In other words, the anticipated interval between audits of the same fog node grows as C gets larger. The exact method for selecting samples from clusters is defined by each sampling policy.

(1) **Random sampling***:* Randomly selected from the set F are clusters of size C, with no repetition. There is no bias in our sampling strategy against fog nodes with a history of failing service audits; rather, it treats all members the same.
(2) **Weighted sampling***:* Each fog node is given a weight in this sampling process according on their audit history. The initialization of the weights is to ensure uniformity. Fog nodes that do not pass a service audit should be audited more regularly, as shown by an increasing weight. Similarly, the de-weight fog nodes that pass service audits, thereby prioritizing audits for all other fog nodes. For this approach to work in reality, an oracle would need to maintain an internal record of all fog audits.
(3) **Balanced Incomplete Block Design (BIBD) sampling***:* This technique relies on a principle from combinatorial design theory, wherein a succession of finite balanced sets of fog nodes FB are constructed. The (F,B, B)-BIBD is defined as a sequence of B-sized blocks where each fog node appears in B separate blocks; these blocks are subsets of F. It is calculated the (F,B, B)-BIBD at the beginning of the simulation. The removal of a fog node from the system causes it to be recalculated.

10.3 Auditing Price

The risk that the next request answer would be incorrect is represented by the random'malicious rate' mf $\in$ [0.4,1] and is assigned to every fog node f $\in$ F. A fog node penalty, according to Fog Penalize's definition, will remove the node from the system when its fog deposit drops below zero and subtract a percentage of the deposit. In our model, we imposed a penalty of -1 and set the value of each fog deposit to 3. If a fog node does not pass three consecutive service audits, it will be removed from the system. We proceed with this simulation under the assumption that audit results have no effect on the malicious rate of any fog node. Every audit scheduling policy runs the simulation a thousand times. The results are displayed in Fig. 5a, b as an average, and in Fig. 5c, d as a variance. The results show that when comparing mean and variance, the weighted sampling approach is always better than the other two methods, random and BIBD. When comparing the two methods, BIBD sampling slightly outperforms random sampling. It is worth mentioning that increasing the cluster size C does not significantly impact the cost of auditing.

10.4 System Status

Assume that a fog node can modify its harmful rate in response to service audit findings. In the event that a fog node passes a service audit, we reduce the harmful rate by a randomly chosen fraction. Should the fog node progressively diminish its harmful rate to zero and restore its reputation score, it will persist throughout the

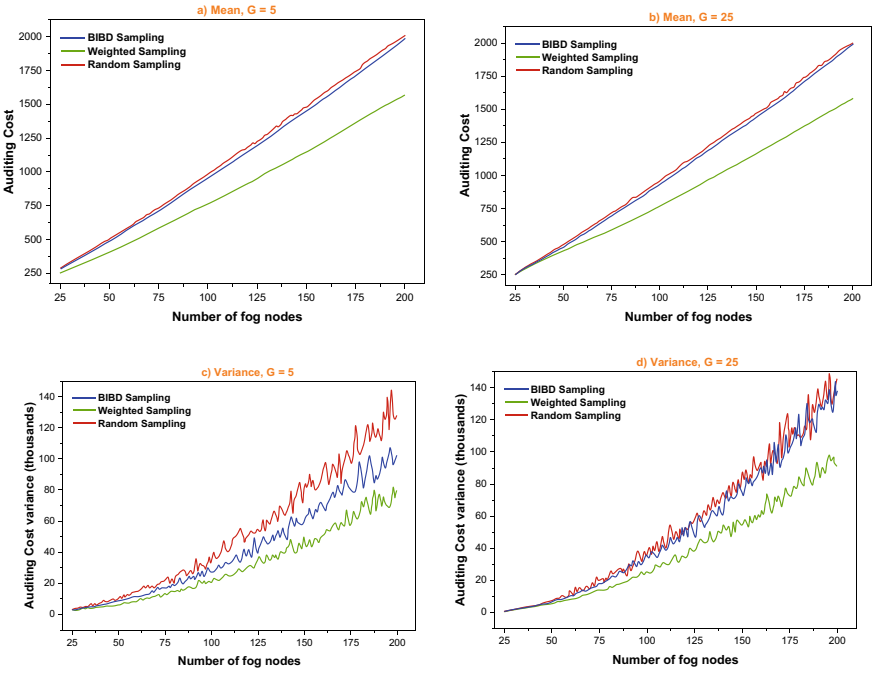


Fig. 5 The means and variances of auditing costs assess the work required to eliminate all harmful nodes

system. If it fails more service audits before fully restoring its reputation score, it will be eliminated. The integrity of the overall system is improved in both scenarios. This trade-off between the quantity of malicious nodes and the integrity of the system can be observed through continuous simulation of the system state. We use the following parameters for these simulations: IIMSC.RMin = 0, IIMSC.RInit = IIMSC.RMax = 10.

(1) **By malicious rate:** We lower the malicious rate of fog nodes when they fail service audits. Consequently, we anticipate a gradual decline in the overall rate of harmful activity. Additional support for our hypothesis would be the retention of only fog nodes exhibiting diminished levels of maliciousness following the removal of a fog node from the system. The malicious rate does, in fact, decrease significantly throughout the first several audits, as shown in Fig. 6a. Upon the majority of fog nodes behaving appropriately, the aggregate reputation score gradually recovers from the initial loss, as anticipated. Using the weighted sample method expedites the redemption of the system's overall reputation score.

(2) **By number of fog nodes:** The total number of fog nodes does seem to be decreasing, though not by quite the same margin as the malicious rate. Fog nodes whose harmful rate has not been reduced enough will eventually be

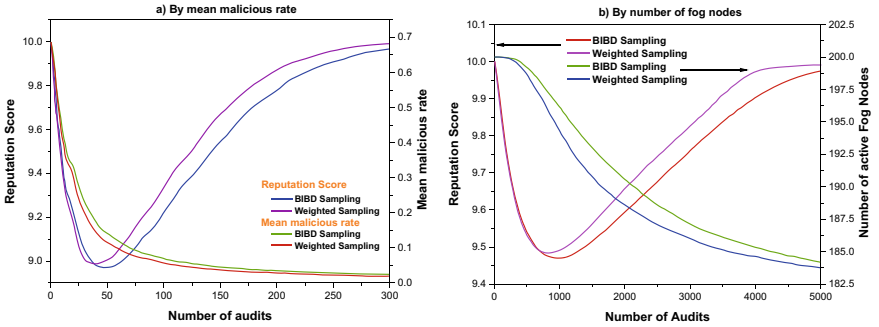


Fig. 6 Consistency of the FISIE system through time

removed from the system. A higher total average reputation score will be achieved with a smaller pool of fog nodes that primarily consist of honorable fog nodes. Figure 6b shows the direct trade-off between a higher reputation score and a lower fog node count, illustrating this point. When using weighted sampling, the reduction in active fog node counts is more pronounced. It is evident from comparing the two simulation results that the Weighted sampling strategy achieves full integrity more quickly.

11 Conclusion

Protecting the integrity of fog nodes is an important part of Internet of Things security. We presented a generic design for blockchain-enabled fog nodes that can accommodate heterogeneous Internet of Things devices in this study. A monetization, authentication, and fog integrity enforcement system based on smart contracts was defined by us. Our final step was to test the safety of our system by simulating different audit scheduling policies and comparing the results. Reduced blockchain costs were a direct result of weighted sampling's enhancement of system integrity with reduced total audits.

The proposed system is built and analyzed theoretically in this work. We plan to construct a Proof-of-Concept model to investigate the practicality of fog nodes that are enabled by blockchain technology, the real latency that is experienced during mutual authentication and the execution of Internet of Things tasks, and the real behavior of fog nodes as time goes on. Based on the system's real-time data, we will also evaluate other audit scheduling policies. The last step in ensuring the integrity of fog is to implement a data auditing mechanism in a public system. In a public IoT-fog setting with decentralized fog devices, the complete cooperation of fog can enable the spread of IoT applications. Because fog enforces integrity, the environment will be secure and suitable for the Internet of Things. A real-life smart city will be the end result of this in due time.

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A Resource-Aware Blockchain Fog Framework for Secure and Scalable IoT Deployments on Edge Devices

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Abstract Fog computing has arisen as an adjunct to cloud computing, addressing specific issues related to cloud computing, such as latency and network capacity demands. Fog computing efficiently processes and stores data near the edge, occasionally employing virtualisation within containers to isolate hardware. On resource-constrained fog nodes, like single-board computers (SBCs), many Internet of Things (IoT) applications are built as virtualized events using these characteristics. Furthermore, blockchain has emerged as a crucial technological advancements that are revolutionizing data dissemination. Blockchain technology represents a decentralized, distributed, an unchangeable record, offering a potential answer for the

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dispersed network of Internet of Things functions. The decentralized structure of blockchain is intrinsically work well with the Internet of Things. Nonetheless, it brings forth fresh difficulties regarding CPU higher up and duration of reaction. The article presents an intricate framework which incorporates blockchain with operating system-virtualization at the level to enable the creation of fog-based IoT applications. It sheds light on potential directions for implementations by way of a demonstration of concept employing SBCs, particularly Raspberries, in their capacity as fog nodes enabled by blockchain technology to support cloud-based Internet of Things software. The sealing process generates negligible overhead, while research indicates that a permissioned blockchain that utilizes Ethereum and is operating on a Raspberry Pi is approximately 25% stressed. This is due to the fact that at most one CPU load is incurred. These findings lend credence to the of utilizing resource blockchain-network nodes in fog to enable IoT applications.

Keywords Single-board computers · Fog computing · Blockchain · Smart contracts · Internet of Things

1 Introduction

Cloud computing is supplemented by fog computing, which is designed to reduce the spatial distance between the data origination location and computational and storage resources. This enables reductions in response time and enhancements in bandwidth, which may be vital in specific IoT applications. The response of IoT environments is the digitization of quotidian elements and industrial data-gathering contexts. Each of these processes may not be of sufficient importance to necessitate execution on a conventional server. Consequently, single-board computers (SBCs) that are frequently employed can serve as effective substitutes and maintain connectivity through technologies such as Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE) or Wi-Fi.

Platforms utilizing SBC might mitigate processing and bandwidth requirements while connecting with cloud providers, thus positioning remote services closer to data sources, similar to fog appearing beneath clouds at lower elevations. Additionally, single-board computers that are cost-effective, such as Raspberry Pis (RPies), can be used to preprocess data generated by IoT sensors. The utmost power consumption of these computers is 15 W, and they are equipped with quad-core processors ARM64 and RAM up to 8 GB. This is essential for the purpose of geographical allocation and economies of scale.

At the same time, cryptocurrency technology is derived from the fundamental principles of blockchain technology, which was initially designed to facilitate economic transactions by establishing a decentralized transaction record. Nevertheless, it has since developed to accommodate a diverse array of applications across a variety of domains. Decentralization, record immutability, data transparency, and high record availability are among the advantageous characteristics of blockchain technology. Smart contracts, which are code that is recorded on the blockchain and executed

upon the occurrence of specific events, were developed based on this concept. Smart contracts operate as a distributed computer, autonomously executing across all nodes involved in the blockchain consensus mechanism.A Decentralized Application (DApp) is a term that generally denotes a collection of smart term that operate on a network of bitcoins.

This study employs blockchain technology to ensure the dissemination of trustworthy IoT apps in fog settings. Layered architectures that combine blockchain technology with operating system-level virtualization are recommended for fog computing environments. Increasing data security and transparency while enabling multiple degrees of access privileges, the proposal is built on an easy-to-implement blockchain-based authentication and identification system for IoT devices and users. The use of operating system virtualization also improves the application's mobility. The blockchain-enabled IoT application uses Docker-based technology to containerize its components, which allows for efficient and flexible software system management and a reproducible execution environment.

This study seeks to assess the feasibility of incorporating a blockchain-based Internet of Things application into fog computing settings, with a focus on a resource-limited implementation of the fog's constituent nodes. Using a permissioned Ethereum network to run a decentralized application (DApp) is the foundation of the inquiry. After assessing the smart contract functionality, non-functional elements like transaction latency and system throughput are used to identify the technology's applicability limits in cost-effective fog computing environments.

1.1 Fog Computation

Applications operating in cloud environments may demonstrate sensitivity to latency or jitter resulting from data transmission with the cloud. The concepts of edge and fog computing are the result of the fact that the transmission of all raw data generated by sensors or intricate IoT policies may be less effectual than local data dispensation prior to relaying pertinent information to the cloud, as illustrated in Fig. 1. The processing capacity of the cloud considerably exceeds that of remote devices; yet, data transfer bandwidth may pose a constraint.

By reducing latency caused by the geographical distance between cloud servers and the devices that provide raw data for the cloud, fog computing improves service models and benefits, including scalability and flexibility. It is a cloud computing paradigm. To reduce the load on cloud servers and speed up data transmission to the cloud, an intermediary device called a fog node processes data locally.

Fog computing improves upon the scalability offered by the cost-effective paradigm of cloud services by pre-processing or processing data produced by end devices. This is achieved by reducing the volume of activity and unprocessed data that are communicated over the network to cloud services. This demands the allocation of resources beyond the cloud, specifically in peripheral devices within the network. This would allow for the local management of latency-sensitive components

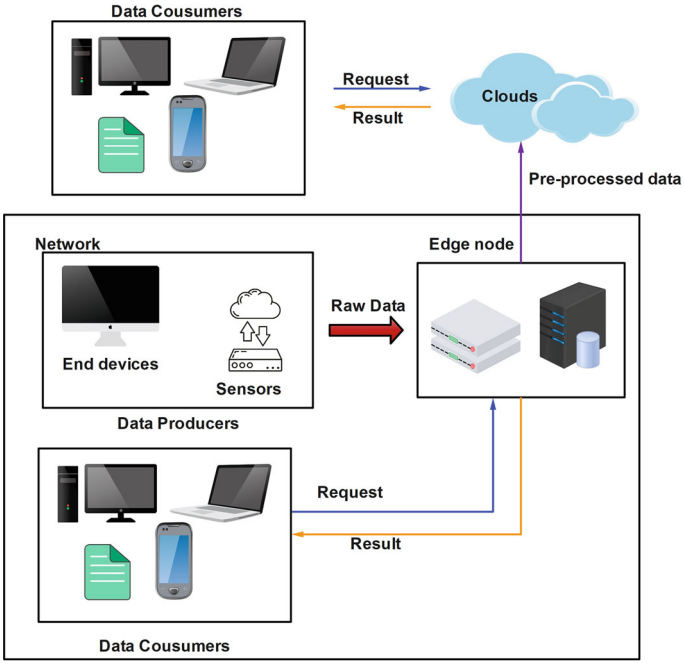

Fig. 1 Architecture for edge computing

to ensure Service Level Agreement compliance, while computationally expensive or delay-tolerant duties would be performed in the cloud.

Fog computing is often thought of in conjunction with the IoT because, in cases where the cloud model is impractical, it might be crucial for specific IoT applications.

1.2 Blockchain

Blockchains are decentralized ledgers that facilitate and document transactions among participants without the necessity of a centralized, impartial, and trusted intermediary to supervise transactions. This inherently establishes the network's interaction with the ledger as completely peer-to-peer and trustless. The initial public implementation of blockchain is frequently associated with Bitcoin; however, it has since broadened its scope to incorporate a more diverse and extensive array of application domains.

The decentralized storage of data is facilitated by blockchain technology, which guarantees both accessibility and integrity. Peer-to-peer (P2P) networks enable the direct connection of participant nodes without the need for intermediaries. A data structure that incorporates data within transactions is known as a blockchain. These transactions are subsequently aggregated into blocks and disseminated throughout

the P2P network using a broadcasting method. A significant database or distributed ledger is formed by linking the blocks in chronological order using a cryptographic hash function. Blockchains can be accurately described as global state machines in which transactions represent the transitions between states. It presents a new architecture for fog computing and elliptic curve cryptography. With a focus on secure device registration, data encryption at the fog gateway, and a technique to identify man-in-the-middle threats, the framework offers a thorough approach to IoT security [1].

There are two ways to categorize blockchains: permissionless and permissioned. Decentralizing governance and blockchain maintenance, permissionless blockchains enable participation by any entity worldwide. In addition, everyone has access to the stored data, which increases openness. Applications requiring high levels of privacy, control, and performance are best served by permissioned blockchains. Access to a permissioned blockchain is limited to authorized entities alone. This suggests that blockchain governance is less decentralized, while improving scalability and network velocity.

With blockchains, all participants share in the distribution of transactions, but only a consensus algorithm can enforce precise consensus rules and decentralize power. A consensus method creates an agreed-upon state for the blockchain by letting users designate new blocks and transactions to add to it. Most blockchains, whether permissionless or permissioned, use consensus procedures like Proof-of-Work (PoW).

Ethereum is a prominent blockchain platform. The primary objective is to establish a global computing infrastructure in which the coin serves as a medium of exchange for platform access. The blockchain's participating nodes are connected by Ethereum's proprietary fundamental P2P network. The Ethereum Virtual Machine is responsible for the execution of custom programs known as smart contracts, which are used to facilitate blockchain transactions or state transitions. Solidity is a sophisticated Turing-complete language that is used to develop smart contracts. These smart contracts are stored within transactions and encoded in bytecode. As a result, making changes to a smart contract after its deployment is not feasible. A smart terms is a deterministic computer program that operates autonomously in accordance with the inputs it receives.

Blockchain technology is showing increasing promise for use in Internet of Things (IoT) devices. Some of the potential uses include Smart Energy, a marketplace for buying and selling excess energy from solar panels and other home power sources; supply chain verification, which would validate product origins and decrease counterfeiting; and temperature monitoring of pharmaceuticals during transportation and distribution, which is often mandated by government agencies. The application of blockchain technology has the potential to modify and improve any other sector.

The importance of a multi-tier architecture that integrates edge, fog, and cloud computing, arguing that this approach optimizes performance, reduces energy consumption, and lowers costs, while also addressing the complexities of task relocation and offloading based on the configuration and capabilities of heterogeneous devices [2]. The IOMT-based health monitoring system utilizes various sensors,

including heart rate, temperature, and vibration sensors, to continuously track the vital signs of coma patients, ensuring a secure environment and enhancing patient safety through real-time data monitoring [3]. The study explores sentiment and emotion analysis on Twitter, focusing on PlayStation's official account. It finds that users express dissatisfaction more freely when not directly mentioning the brand. The work highlights the value of social media sentiment for business intelligence applications [4]. The integration of Fog Computing with the Internet of Nano Things (IoNT) emphasizes the ways in which this combination overcomes the constraints of conventional cloud-centric architectures, particularly in the areas of latency, bandwidth, and real-time data processing [5]. The integration of cutting-edge technologies, such as artificial intelligence, wearable devices, and the Internet of Things (IoT), into the healthcare sector, with an emphasis on their capacity to enable the continuous and real-time monitoring of patients' health conditions. By enabling the remote collection and analysis of critical health data, this technological advancement enables proactive healthcare management [6]. AI and IoT technologies are integrated into healthcare, with a particular emphasis on their role in real-time monitoring and patient-centered care. It emphasizes the collection of health data by IoT devices, including medical-grade displays and wearable sensors, and its transmission to centralized systems. The data is analyzed by AI algorithms to identify health patterns and irregularities in an early stage [7]. This study proposes a drone detection system that differentiates drones from birds using focus measure operators and random forest classification. Tested on the IEEE AVSS2021 dataset, the model achieves up to 96.24% accuracy across two, three, and four-class scenarios. Performance is validated for both moving and stationary cameras [8].

This paper suggests the use of hybrid machine learning models that incorporate BERT, TF-IDF, and Spacy to identify indicators of melancholy in tweets. The TF-IDF with logistic regression demonstrated the highest accuracy (0.994) among the four models. The method validates the function of social media in the early assessment of mental health [9]. The necessity of ongoing investment in these technologies to improve health care delivery, and the critical role of technological advancements, including wearables, artificial intelligence (AI), and broadband expansion, in sustaining and optimizing remote patient monitoring (RPM) in the post-pandemic era [10]. The necessity of a hybrid architecture that integrates IoT, Fog, and Cloud computing to improve data administration and real-time decision-making across a variety of industries is underscored by the limitations of traditional centralized Cloud computing models. This method facilitates the distribution of computational duties, thereby guaranteeing efficient processing in close proximity to the data source [11]. Using IoT-enabled wearable devices that continuously capture and transmit patient data for processing, the research presents a comprehensive framework for real-time monitoring of vital signs. This approach improves the efficiency and accuracy of healthcare systems [12]. A comprehensive framework that emphasizes the integration of IoT, AI, and ML in healthcare analytics, detailing how these technologies enhance patient care, diagnostics, and operational efficiency through improved data collection, processing, and analysis [13].

The integration of Intelligent Systems (IS) and the IoT in clinical healthcare is underscored by their roles in real-time patient monitoring, predictive analytics, and the development of customized treatment plans to enhance healthcare outcomes [14]. The integration of wireless sensor networks (WSNs) and the IoT in healthcare systems, which emphasizes the transition from traditional management practices to advanced data processing and extensive data storage capabilities enabled by these technologies [15]. The study integrates artificial neural networks with vision-guided robotic systems for cutting and pick-and-place operations. It demonstrates improvements in convergence speed and decision-making accuracy. ANN enhances machine vision applications by enabling adaptive, non-contact industrial automation strategies [16]. It meticulously analyzes and contrasts hybrid architectures, cloud computing, and peripheral computing, with an emphasis on their utilization in IoT environments. Peer-reviewed journals, conference proceedings, and industry reports are thoroughly searched and analyzed to underscore the most recent advancements in computing technologies for IoT [17]. The development of a novel service placement algorithm based on double deep Q-Network and prioritized experience replay (DDQN-PER) is motivated by the critique of existing solutions for their slow adaptation to changing resource requirements and their neglect of the temporal patterns of service resource demand [18]. In an effort to classify hate speech on Twitter, the proposed HCovBi-Caps model implements a Convolutional, BiGRU, and Capsule network. It outperforms existing models on benchmark datasets, particularly for unbalanced data, achieving training and validation accuracy of 0.93 and 0.90. The benefits of capsule dimension and the limitations of routing are revealed through hyperparameter optimization [19].

A comprehensive classification system for the architectural, algorithmic, and technological aspects of fog computing, highlighting its role as a developing technology aimed at resolving computing and networking challenges in the widespread implementation of IoT applications. It emphasizes the multi-tier, distributed, and potentially collaborative approach of fog computing, which serves as a promising alternative to traditional cloud computing [20]. Using a deductive framework, this study analyzes reinforcement learning applications in natural language generation (NLG). The research emphasizes ethical and adaptable text generation through RL-enhanced systems. Insights contribute to environmentally conscious, customizable AI content creation [21]. The study proposes the development of an IoT pulse oximeter utilizing edge computing, which allows for the collection, analysis, and monitoring of patient biosignal data in real time. This approach aims to improve the efficiency of patient management systems by reducing wait times associated with cloud computing [22]. It addresses the issue of resource allocation in fog computing, where prioritizing certain application requirements can lead to resource depletion at closer fog tiers, forcing latency-sensitive applications to rely on more distant resources, which can result in non-responsiveness [23]. Emphasizing the transformation of remote patient monitoring through a multi-pronged approach that includes IoT remote monitoring, cloud-based analysis, artificial intelligence (AI) integrated diagnostics, real-time alerts, and predictive analytics, the importance of integrating technology and medicine through Healthcare IoT initiatives is significant [24].

This study bridges the gap by utilizing real-world data from smart IoT devices to illustrate the benefits of fog computing over cloud computing in the context of a smart office building, including energy consumption, latency, and network bandwidth utilization [25]. The paper discusses the role of IoT platforms as intermediaries that connect and manage IoT devices, applications, and data, emphasizing the importance of a common framework for communication between these entities. The study introduces a new model for real-time data processing in the fog layer, utilizing supervised machine learning techniques to predict heartbeat anomalies in an IoT network [26]. The research introduces a fuzzy logic-based stacked autoencoder (FL_SDDAE) for feature representation in soft sensors. Combined with LSEBPNN for classification, the model achieves 94% prediction performance and 85% accuracy. It efficiently handles noisy sensor data and automation errors in manufacturing [27]. It investigates the potential of fog computing (FC) and the Internet of Things (IoT) to enhance the reliability of computation and the efficacy of communication for IoT devices that are resource-constrained. This is accomplished by increasing the quantity of fog nodes (FNs) deployed at the perimeter of IoT networks. For the effective management of complex networks and enormous data processing, this integration is indispensable [28]. The paper provides an in-depth assessment of Fog Computing's conceptual framework, highlighting its distinctive features and fundamental differences from traditional Cloud Computing models, which sets the stage for understanding its role in the IoT ecosystem [29]. The review identifies gaps in the current research regarding orchestration tools and proposes potential research directions to address these gaps, highlighting the importance of considering the performance of IoT applications through various metrics during the orchestration process [30]. Moreover, many concepts are evaluated in real testbeds; nonetheless, ours distinctly emphasizes stress-testing the gadgets that facilitate blockchain operations.

2 Description of the System

The proposed system is composed of three primary components: economical computational nodes, users, and sensors. Each entity within the system serves a purpose from a comprehensive perspective. Users engage with the processing data and may even own the actual sensor that collect data (pictures, audio, text, etc.). On the other side, nodes are made up of inexpensive and energy-efficient CPUs that allow operating system-level virtualization. Processing data, protecting private information, and making data traceable and auditable are all within their purview. In order to establish a connection to the system, each organization implements a network technology. The connectivity of sensors with computational modules is facilitated by technologies such as Wi-Fi, Bluetooth, and LORA.

The system design consists of four layers, each characterized by its specific functionality, as depicted in Fig. 2. The subsequent information pertains to the logical layers and their respective functions:

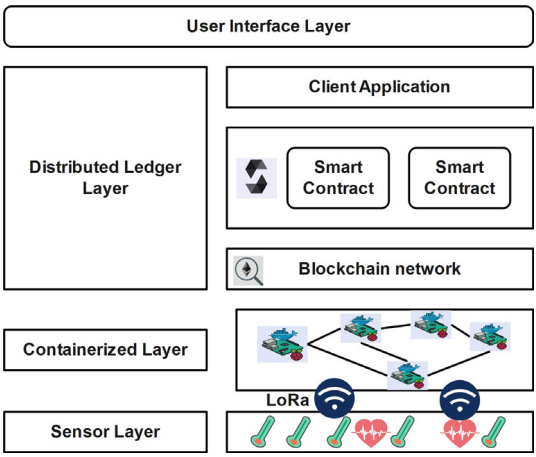

Fig. 2 A blockchain-based IoT solution with a layered software architecture

1. **Sensor layer**: An exemplary IoT application often incorporates data sources, including sensors. The environment is monitored by the sensor layer, which captures data with varying degrees of sensitivity. This data is either universally accessible to all system users or requires specific permissions to be accessed. The system's security is improved by the incorporation of new data sources through a blockchain-based user registration procedure that supports a variable quantity of data sources. Processing may be conducted to identify pertinent values and refine the data for appropriate storage before it is stored in a smart contract. Each record is subject to the terms of the contract with each source.
2. **Containerized layer**: Program mobility will be improved by executing them as containers. The administration of container deployment in the blockchain-based IoT application is the responsibility of the containerized layer. Docker is the preferred virtualization platform for administering and deploying containers. Containerized applications can be more easily created, deployed, and managed with the help of Docker, an open-source platform. Supported by a diverse community and several organizations, including Amazon and Microsoft, this software container platform is at the forefront of its industry.
3. **Elements of a distributed ledger**: The Internet of Things application's smart contracts and blockchain network are both part of this software layer. Each data source's smart contract will additionally include client-generated values defined in a language like Java Golang (Fig. 2). On a private permissioned blockchain, the network of nodes will synchronize, distribute, and record transactions. This blockchain enforces access restrictions and limitations on participants, while also allowing for unfettered involvement in the consensus process. The Ethereum infrastructure will utilize the Geth client. Thirty- Geth facilitates the establishment of permissioned blockchains and facilitates engagement in permissionless blockchains, such as the Ethereum main network. The Ethereum main network uses Ethash, a Proof of Work (PoW) mechanism, and Clique, a Proof of Authority (PoA) approach, as its consensus algorithms for permissioned blockchains.

On the contrary, smart contracts are essential to decentralized applications (DApps) that use the blockchain network to generate new values, display old values, or access historical data. The authorization and authentication framework for user and sensor entities will be expressly regulated by smart contracts.

DApps deviate from the conventional server-client architecture by omitting a central server for information exchange; rather, the blockchain's state is modified when nodes responsible for transaction validation authenticate the operation's authenticity and verify its non-fraudulent nature. Thus, no differentiation exists between the client and the server, as the latter is nonexistent. Nevertheless, the access to blockchain functionalities that all customers within the network have may differ while they are interacting within the same infrastructure. This can be used to restrict functionality or categorize clients based on their utilization domain; however, these measures can be implemented within smart contracts.

4. **Interface layer**: The system administrator can be distinguished from other users in the IoT application. Registration of users who have been designated as the proprietors of sensors within the system will be the primary responsibility of the primary individual. The sensor devices will be registered by the users in the system. In addition, users have the ability to request information that has been previously collected and analyzed by sensors and stored on the blockchain. This data may be employed to develop an efficient healthcare solution, generate historical data on reservoir water levels or temperatures, or observe a distribution chain. It explores the convergence of fog computing and blockchain in the healthcare sector, highlighting the challenges related to device communication, the development of frameworks, and data security. The paper suggests that addressing these critical issues is essential for advancing towards cost-effective and improved quality of treatment in the healthcare field [31].

3 Case Analysis

By developing a decentralized application (DApp) that incorporates a wide variety of IoT applications, this study aims to investigate the viability of implementing blockchain on fog computing devices with limited resources. Traditional IoT applications involve the processing of data from a variety of heterogeneous sources, such as sensors and cameras, and the potential generation of a response, which can be expressed as feedback on a user interface or by actuating a device. The use case that was executed is specifically designed to identify data that exhibits unusual situations and to evaluate conditions on continuously generated data. The blockchain preserves historical data that is pertinent to examinations and transparency. Supply chain management, smart grid, the food sector, and healthcare services are just a few of the many potential uses for the data processing workflow outlined in the proposed use case. The emergence of edge computing solutions as a response to the limitations of traditional cloud computing, which struggles with issues such as

inadequate privacy protection, slow response times, and bandwidth congestion due to the massive data volumes generated by the Internet of Everything (IoE) [32].

Two fundamental general functionalities are included in the developed DApp:

1. **Documenting and monitoring sensor data.** Without sacrificing generality, this analysis investigates particular health-related variables, including heart rate and temperature.
2. **Authentication and authorization**. Only users with the proper authorization can register new sensors and view the data that has been sensed. A method has been devised to incorporate the distinctive characteristics of the blockchain into the registration process for new users. This method utilizes a One Time Password (OTP).

Figure 3 shows the developed DApp's component diagram. The Ethereum platform is utilized in conjunction with the geth client, which was created in Go, in this case study. The blockchain network of Ethereum is accessed by the geth client via RPC sockets. Consequently, the execution of smart contract code is reliant on Remote Procedure Calls (RPCs) despite the fact that it is organized as a succession of variables and methods. The smart contract methods are executed by an entity that has a contract interface that facilitates the implementation of its functions. There is a binary interface in Ethereum known as the Application Binary Interface (ABI). In order to invoke contract methods on an Ethereum point that is executing the EVM, a program must include bytecode and method definitions (signatures).

The Solidity compiler (solc) generates the bytecode of the smart contract. In conclusion, the internet of things decentralized application is composed of the following mechanisms:

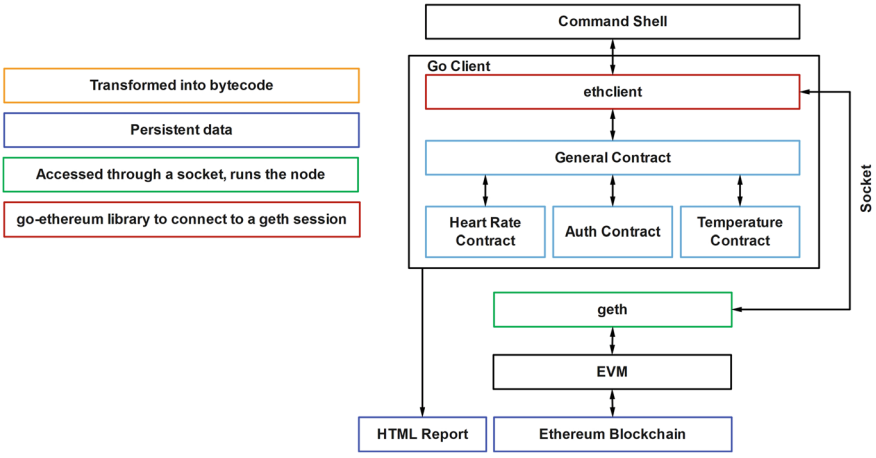

Fig. 3 Diagram of the components for the development of the DApp

1. Requests for data acquisition and transaction execution are sent by the Go client to the Ethereum node. An HTML report can be generated and data can be queried from the blockchain by the client.
2. Smart contracts were converted to bytecode. The DApp has implemented three primary contracts: the General Contract, the Auth Contract, and the Generic Sensor Contract. Consequently, two contracts based on this logic have been established: the Temperature Contract and the Heart Rate Contract.
3. **Go Ethereum and the Ethereum Virtual Machine**: Interfaces with the socket generated by geth are implemented by the IoT DApp. Utilizing the EVM, Geth thereafter executes transactions and queries. The transactions' outcomes are recorded in the blockchain.. It introduces the Health-FoTs (Fog of Things) paradigm, which utilizes fog devices to process and filter data closer to IoT nodes, thereby improving service quality and reducing latency. The research demonstrates that this approach results in a 23% reduction in latency, 32% increase in throughput, and 25% decrease in communication overhead compared to traditional IoT infrastructures [33].

The decentralized application is comprised of the principal General Contract, the contract that regulates application authorization and Auth Contract, and the contracts that consolidate data from a variety of sensor devices like Temperature Contract and Heart Rate Contract (Fig. 3). The following models are based on the abstract Generic Sensor Contract, which includes universal logic relevant to all sensor kinds. Further information is presented:

1. The General Contract functions as the principal agreement for the amalgamation of access rights. It oversees registered users, their authentication state, and provides wrappers for additional contracts, guaranteeing that all interactions are regulated only by its logic.
2. Distinct instances of this contract will be derived from the General Contract to guarantee the segregation of each user's login credentials.
3. A sensor's historical data is documented in the Generic Sensor Contract, which is an abstract agreement. In this instance, the selection of received values is determined by a combination of thresholds that serve to determine whether the record should be preserved and/or whether an event should be transmitted over the network. It identifies key challenges in system integration that need to be addressed to effectively combine sensor-based data collection with advanced AI algorithms for improved healthcare analytics [34].

Figure 4 shows the class diagram of the system. The recorded sensor information is kept in a tuple <timestamp, data> array in the smart contract that is linked to a sensor device. In addition to the identification, there is a set of Boolean status variables that identify each user, including whether they are currently logged in, registered, or have administrative powers. Figure 4 shows the total number of login attempts.

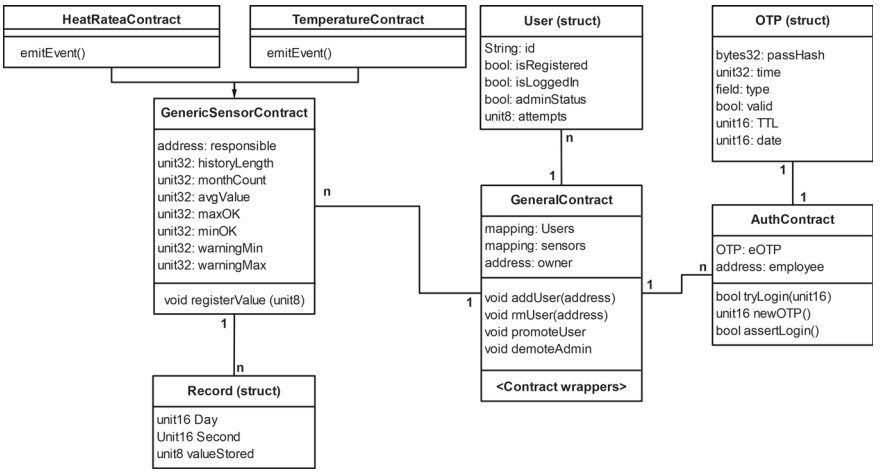

Fig. 4 Resulting contract relationships

3.1 Approved Administration at the Application Stage

Users are required to acquire authorization prior to utilizing the application on multiple IoT devices, as the program purportedly manages sensitive data. In light of the requirement for client installation on multiple devices, one potential solution is to establish a machine at the organization's entrance, which would allow registered users to obtain a One-Time Password (OTP). In order to interact with a sensor-equipped device, users must input the password for successful authentication. The deployment of smart contracts enables the execution of this technique on a wide range of devices.

A registry of authorized users is necessary to avert unwanted access to sensed data. Therefore, the list of registered users and relevant information must be preserved within a primary contract, which will function as the interface for user engagement. Members may encounter limitations regarding their utilization of the system.

In order to authenticate users, an additional authorization contract (Auth Contract) is implemented, with a unique contract instance assigned to each user. This enables the primary contract to operate as a contract factory, preserving each OTP within a separate Auth Contract instance. Methods are thereafter invoked through the General Contract, allowing user administration solely via the General Contract instance.

Temporal credentials are generated on a centralized server with ease, as the server has limited access. Although there are potential risks associated with communication between the server and the channel, these can be disregarded as long as the data is adequately protected. In blockchain-based applications, this does not transpire as the data stored on the blockchain is accessible to all peers, regardless of their permissions, thereby inhibiting the contract from generating these passwords. Additionally, other peers need to validate password generation for transaction creation to be facilitated.

Passwords must be generated along with their hashes; it is not enough to simply generate them using the appropriate contract and store the hash. Passwords generated and recorded by the client in the contract are first visible to transaction verifiers and later to any other peer in the network after they are included in the contract's state.

Consequently, the off-chain client is a more secure method of generating the password and verifying its integrity. The authentication procedure must be consistent across multiple devices, if necessary, and verification must be conducted with a contract. By producing its hash on the client side, in conjunction with the password, this issue can be resolved. The password hash is explicitly included in the contract. By guaranteeing that the hash of the password submitted corresponds with the hash stored in its state, the contract validates the password's validity. The security challenges that are associated with the fine-grained access control of sensitive data stored on untrusted cloud servers, with a particular emphasis on the administration and control of heterogeneous IoT devices in cyber-physical systems (CPS).. It emphasizes the necessity of dynamically evaluating contextual parameters associated with IoT devices prior to issuing instructions, a challenge that current access management techniques are unable to sufficiently address [35].

The process of creating an one time password is shown in Fig. 5. The Goclient creates a new one-time password (OTP) and invokes the relevant wrapper method in the General Contract when the User requests one via the customer user interface (UI). After that, the wrapper method calls the new OTP () method in the Auth Contract to add the user's unique hash to the blockchain. The next step is to create a blockchain transaction that will record the user's unique OTP's metadata. Furthermore, it is important to note that General Contract retains data regarding user responsibilities and permissions; as a result, all transactions must be executed through its wrappers.

A transaction is necessary to authenticate the password in the Auth Contract and ensure that the OTP has not been used for login attempts. The data pertaining to the OTP stored on the blockchain remains immutable to avert its reutilization. Thus, an extra transaction (assertion) is required to update the General Contract to reflect

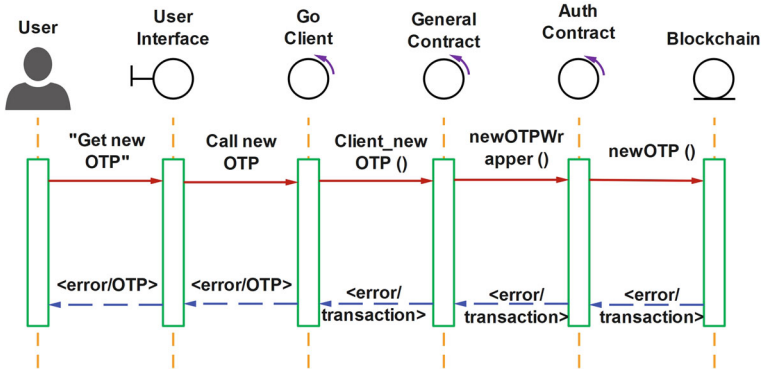

Fig. 5 Encrypting the key to the password in a contract and creating a new OTP

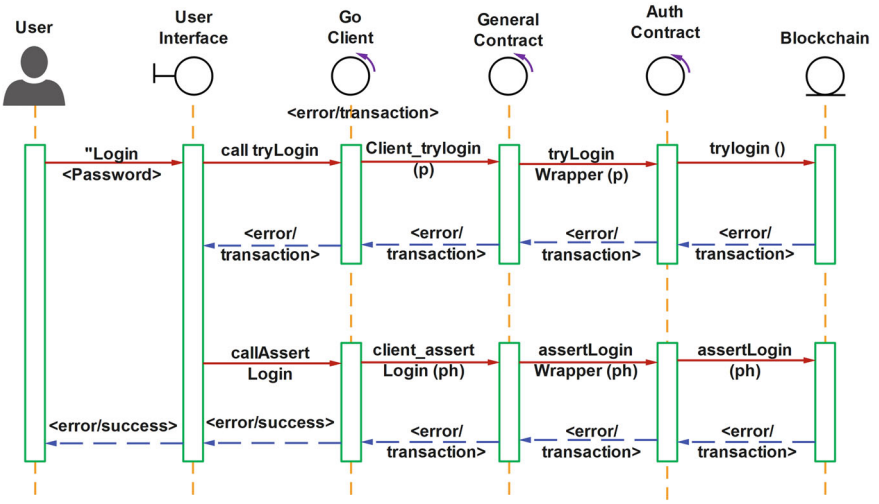

Fig. 6 Attempt to log in by a two-step process

the innovative change and set the customer's status to "logged in." This shows in Fig. 6. To commence the login attempt, the user uses the user interface. This, in turn, triggers the equivalent function in the Goclient, which is analogous to the process of generating an OTP.

The General Contract's wrapper function is triggered, and after the user's login status is verified, the Auth Contract's tryLogin() method is initiated. The former checks the given password hash against the hash kept in the contract's framework for the one-time password (OTP). Since method calls to smart contracts just generate the transaction receipt, an extra step is required to evaluate the login attempt's success and provide the user feedback. Following is the rationale for employing the assert Login () function. This method evaluates the validity and expiration of an OTP that is employed for authentication. As a successful login attempt modifies the contract's state, it is necessary to undertake this in a separate transaction to verify these alterations.

The OTP is rendered ineffective should the logon attempt be successful, as its status is updated to invalid. As a result, a process that can be completed in two phases with a centralized server (the generation and utilization of the OTP) must now be divided into three sequential stages when the OTP is stored on a decentralized blockchain.

3.2 Permission Management and Per-Sensor Contracts

Each sensor may possess a unique contract that records all pertinent values prior to their preservation in the blockchain, similar to Authentication Contracts. The Fog

nodes preprocess data sensors, resulting in the recording of only specific data on the blockchain. In order to determine whether the generated value should be recorded on the blockchain, we have established upper and lower limits in our example. Furthermore, we have designated a distinct set of thresholds to ascertain whether an event should be triggered and to simultaneously document the amount.

These sensor contracts require restricted access in case any user can access or modify a sensor. This permits both general and specialized user permissions. To facilitate the storage and retrieval of permissions for specific users, a mapping system is necessary, as a compilation of permission documents is necessary.. A comparative analysis is conducted between the proposed signature-based access control and key management scheme (SBAC-FC) and existing schemes, demonstrating that SBAC-FC offers superior security and functionality characteristics while maintaining lower complexity overheads [36].

4 Details of System Deployment

This section outlines the experimental methods for system deployment, which include the configuration of nodes and the network, as well as the production of container images.

In order to operate the system on a genuine blockchain, it is necessary to execute an Ethereum node. This node creates an interface for client connectivity, which facilitates the submission of transactions and the invocation of contract methods. Gas fees, ETH, and ultimately, financial costs, can be incurred when the requisite contracts are executed on a public blockchain such as Ethereum's mainnet. Given that this system has the potential to accumulate sensitive data, such as medical information, it is recommended that it operate on a permissioned private blockchain. This is especially accurate in light of the fact that Ethereum endorses the Proof-of-Authority (POA) agreement procedure.

4.1 Definition of Network

A genesis file is employed to establish the network at the outset. The network's configuration elements are contained in this JSON file, which includes:

1. A positive integer known as the Chain ID is utilized to identify a network.
2. Restriction on Block gas.
3. A predetermined block throughput, denoted in seconds, is known as the "clique period." Upon the receipt of transactions, new blocks are exclusively incorporated into the chain when this value is nil.
4. The initial sealing addresses.
5. Addresses that have been pre-funded.

The genesis file comprises details pertaining to Ethereum versions and features. To enhance usability, Go-Ethereum provides a command-line utility called Puppeth for the creation of the genesis file.

4.2 Configuring Nodes

Nodes must initialize the genesis file before commencing mining on an Ethereum network (or validating in the case of Proof of Authority). Executing geth with the appropriate inputs enables the execution of both operations. The specification of the network ID, the data directory for blockchain data storage, the path to the node key-pair, and the listening port are all necessary for the use of geth for mining, particularly when the node is connected to multiple networks. The text file containing this key pair contains the public key, encrypted private key, and information about the security method.

Peers may be detected, defined by parameters, or manually integrated after the mining process has commenced for peer-to-peer connectivity.

4.3 Configuring Docker Containers

The application client executes contracts and maintains business logic, while the Ethereum node facilitates mining and transaction generation; these two components together make up the resultant "binary" application. The program will be executed as a container in order to improve its mobility. Docker has been selected as the virtualization platform for container deployment and administration. On a Raspberry Pi 4 that is operating the ARM64 version of Ubuntu Server 20.04, twenty-four containers are deployed. The following parameters are included in the Docker image specification for the application:

1. The principal image is Ubuntu, which is a result of the dedicated repository provided by Ethereum developers and the numerous architectures it supports.
2. The constructed DApp requires geth to communicate with Ethereum; however, it is not available in the Ubuntu or Debian repositories and must be acquired from the novel developers.
3. Because the Ethereum removal algorithm and app customer are embedded in the picture, source code is no longer needed to implement them.
4. In order to guarantee program interoperability, network protocols must be enabled. The interfaces that should be exposed for Geth are as follows:

    (a) The WebSocket-based JSON RPC API employs TCP port 8546.
    (b) Utilized by the HTTP-based JSON RPC API, port 8545 TCP.
    (c) The P2P protocol functioning within the network employs Port 30,303, which is used by both TCP and UDP.

(d) Port 8547 TCP is employed by the GraphQL API.

Inter-Process Communication (IPC) allows the ethclient to connect to geth; this is alike to a opening that geth creates as a folder while it runs. Consequently, the network interfaces that were originally defined might be left out.

The host operating system necessitates specific information regarding port forwarding before the image can be executed. Additionally, folders that are shared and synchronized within the container must be 'mounted'. The internal port/directory of the container and its equivalent on the host machine are necessary for both configuration options. This enables the launching of numerous instances of the container from any computer, provided that the operating system has available interfaces. To acquire an interactive shell or to initiate the container in the background, the user may specify the execution parameters -it sh.

5 Assessment of Performance

On the testbed depicted in Fig. 7, the designated system has been implemented, which consists of SBC and a computer. For the purpose of comparison analysis, the laptop is the primary tool. The single-board computer known as the Raspberry Pi 4 has 4 GB of random-access memory. The parts of the laptop are as follows:

1. Processor: Intel Core i5-6300HQ (2.3 GHz Quad-Core).
2. System Memory: 8 GB DDR4.
3. Data storage: Solid-state Drive (SSD) over SATA.
4. Transfer rate: gigabit ethernet.

On both the Raspberry Pi and the laptop, an Ethereum point is running. Unless otherwise stated, the consensus technique used by the Ethereum link is POA. This means that only the address linked to the running node is allowed to seal and attach new blocks. The Raspberry Pi's Ethereum node operates within a container, whereas the PC's Ethereum node operates directly on the host operating system "on bare metal.". The development and testing of a solar powered Raspberry Pi node equipped with environmental sensors for temperature and irradiance measurements, along with a camera for cloud optical flow estimations, emphasizing the need for an energy consumption scheduler to maintain measurement integrity based on battery levels and solar resource availability [37–39].

An outline of the studies that measured the Raspberry Pi's system throughput and resource consumption is given in the section that follows.

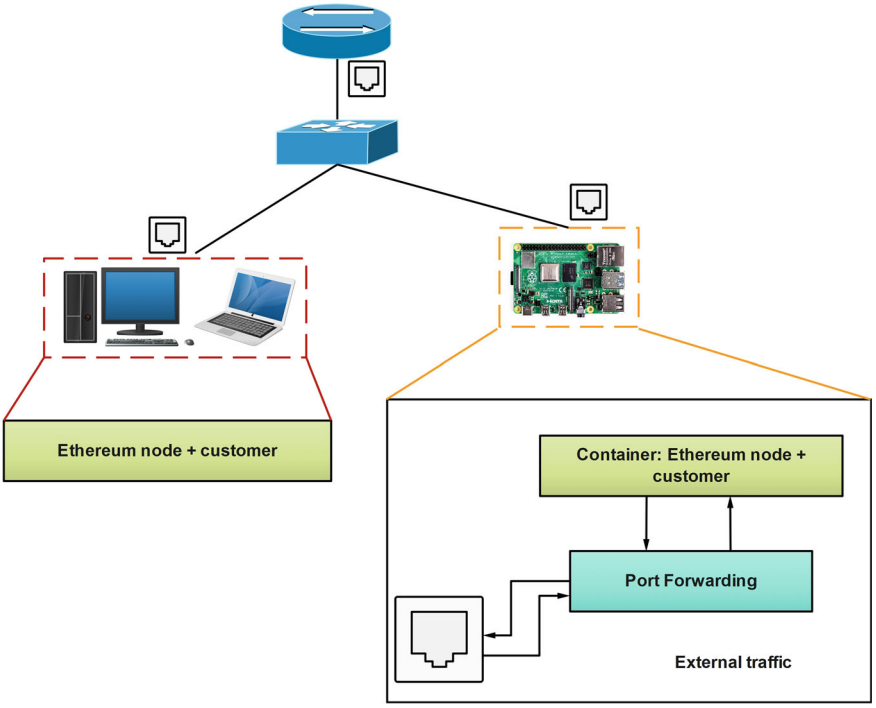

Fig. 7 A Raspberry Pi and a computer comprise the testbed

5.1 The Utilization of Resources

A CPU burden of no more than 2% is maintained by the Raspberry Pi during inactive periods. Upon being launched, a container that is operating geth and has pending transactions is only capable of consuming approximately 5% of a solo core. The amount of memory consumed varies among 650 and 850 MB.

At client commencement, the CPU is forced to use only one core to its fullest capacity as it processes the account configuration instructions necessary to load and create the ethclient. As a result, the burden on a single core increase to 102% with the initiation of transaction production. The workload is apportioned among the four cores of the device, yielding an approximate distribution of 25% per core. Memory consumption increases by 600 MB till execution is complete. The transaction throughput, as reported by the geth console, averages 1.366 ms, with a median of 1.1314 ms. Still, these gaps range from 2.5 to 0.6 ms; so, this maximum is the secure time to maintain among payments.

Despite running Ethereum on a Raspberry Pi as a sealer, the CPU use stays below the 25% mark set for sealing blocks. The consensus approach's simplicity is the most probable cause of this miniscule disagreement.

5.2 Throughput of the System

Continuous requests must be executed to assess the transaction rate that the system can achieve, which is known as system throughput. These queries are executed on the Generic Sensor Contract to simulate a realistic scenario in which the rate of sensor data generation may exceed the rate of new user or OTP creation [40].

For the Internet of Things application to run smoothly, it is critical to think about the decentralized blockchain's asynchronous dynamics. The blockchain's state is not immediately modified by the transaction confirmation, which places specific restrictions on the queries that are executed within the system and affect contract states. Consequently, the implementation of manual delays within the code is necessary for the execution of those methods on a genuine Ethereum blockchain.

This element is the focus of a test case that involves the instantiation of a Generic Sensor Contract instance and the continuous logging of new data within it. Moreover, the period between each storage request is systematically reduced to intensify pressure on the system. Ultimately, the validation of a transaction may not be sufficiently accurate prior to the execution of the subsequent one when latency decreases. For example, if a counter is incremented in one transaction and its value is accessed in the subsequent transaction, the values will be displayed as the same. In our investigation, the initial delay between transactions is set at 10 ms, and it decreases by 0.1 ms for each Storage Unit. With every iteration, the time between successive transactions gets shorter and shorter till the contract fails.

Results from the evaluation using the primary sealer address and the provided parameters on a Raspberry Pi node and computer. The data was obtained from 100 test iterations. Box plots display the dispersion of transaction intervals, comprised of the range of values from lowest to highest, median, and first to third quartiles. At least latency observed on you can use a Raspberry Pi roughly 3 ms, with more than 100% of requests experiencing latencies below only four milliseconds. The discrepancy in as the 75% mark and above through the Raspberry Pi may stem from extended stress on geth. The laptop demonstrates identical behavior, with 100% experiencing delays between 1 and 2 ms searches. When using a Raspberry Pi, the performance is roughly fifty percent on the portable computer, despite its significantly limited available materials.

With the IoT DApp, the throughput is later evaluated under stress conditions on the constrained device to ascertain any potential effects. The experiment entailed making use of more powerful CPUs demands to the Raspberry Pi by employing applications such as load-cpu-go. It has represents a closer to the truth scenario in which case the Raspberry Pi serves as the fog node performs complex handling through observed prior to recording pertinent data stored on the blockchain. Regarding this matter, the distance as soon as a transaction begins to lengthen, albeit the time disparities are frequently sub-millisecond (see Fig. 8).

In the least favorable testing conditions, the bare minimum that is acceptable for the Raspberry Pi had to be nine milliseconds or more, however this price may rise extrapolating from delays in bandwidth and processing power of the device. The

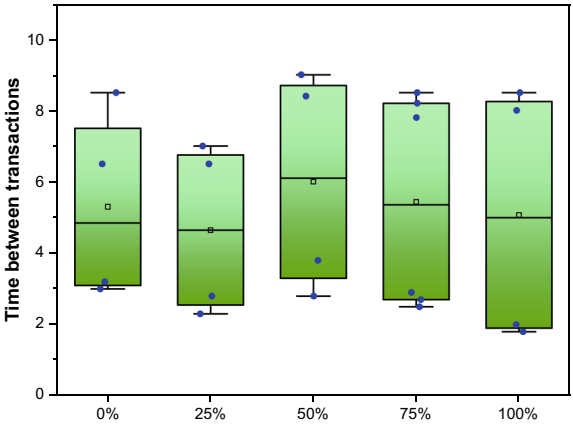

Fig. 8 Evaluation of time intervals among transactions till failure, as noted by CPU load

potential maximum throughput is around 300 simultaneous transactions at the very least interval between transactions, with a baseline of 100 simultaneous transactions.

In light of extensive and economical available materials utilized, it appears that the outcomes warranted for small-scale operations. Considering that an ongoing influx entries into the blockchain improbable in practical situations, when potentially life-threatening unexpected information might be documented, this solution may be adequate in terms of locations constrained areas. Nevertheless, if a location demonstrates markedly elevated device density, leading to augmented data generation, it indicates that a larger quantity of information must be kept on-chain. In these cases, alternative options such as interconnecting many blockchains, potentially in a hierarchical structure, should be evaluated; or, alternatively, utilizing other distributed ledger technologies like IOTA.

6 Conclusions

The dispersed processing and storage capabilities of the Fog computing is advantageous to the IoT environment. Additionally, individual circuit boards, for example, the Raspberry Pi represent an ordinary and cost-effective fog node option. Moreover, new technology called blockchain is revolutionary scientific discovery that enables dispersal of data storage and business logic among third parties that are not directly trusted. Online Networks augments blockchain technology by supplying real-world data that are able to cause business logic to run by intelligent contracts implemented on the blockchain. It has study primarily examines how feasible it is to apply blockchain technology to inexpensive, limited nodes in dense fog.

A suite of standardized smart contracts for the registration of sensor-derived data has been created, together with a customer that operates operated using the Raspberry Pi platform. Smart contracts and the client both deal with the user identification

permission, and for accessing sensor data by a method of creating and employing a single password customized to the unique attributes blockchain technology. Those have been executed on one's own Ethereum network blockchain employing the consensus based on Proof-of-Authority mechanism.

A set of experiments were performed to assess the client's overhead in order to use the Raspberry Pi for quantify the system's data transfer rate. The findings indicate the proposal's feasibility, as the Raspberry Pi endures minimal strain, as well as the hypothetical transaction rate scenario is sufficient of the Internet of Things (IoT) sensing applications.

Moving Forward efforts will focus on evaluating how easily the private blockchain can scale, including calculating the maximum capacity of sensors, fog nodes, measurement rates, and associated parameters to ensure that the planned rollout is compatible with.

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Augmented and Virtual Reality Innovations

From Pixels to Enhanced Presence: Innovations in Image Processing for Augmented and Virtual Reality

Gopal Krishna, Kapil Joshi and Vineeta Singh

Abstract VR and AR technology by merging the virtual with actual world, have changed digital interactions. Image processing is the foundation of this transformation that helps in visual perception and interaction within AR/VR reality. Image Processing in AR/VRAR trilogy Image processing is a major component of the computer vision-based capabilities currently available with AR systems, and through AI & ML integration has taken adaptability to new levels making it possible for practical use-case solutions built on real-time able context. Here in this chapter, we discuss the main problems and recent progress of image processing for AR/VR with an emphasis on real-time rendering objects recognition and user entertainment. As there is a course that spans traditional practices and the most modern takes on such methodologies from AI-derived processing to next-gen (computational) imaging methods for enhancement of immersive experiences. This chapter provides an overview of the fundamental advances in computer vision and human–computer interaction through a thorough search as part of related literature review on AR/VR. This book introduces readers to many interesting and sophisticated image processing techniques as well as their new applications in several important domains. AI-powered image processing is now making AR/VR better—faster real-time rendering, higher-fidelity visuals. Algorithms like CNN, GAN help in realism and methods to sense depth as well super resolution further improvise the quality of visual information had potential complementary benefits for traditional limitations from image processing community. In AR/VR, this is possible due to the power of advanced image processing has revolutionized capabilities making immersive experiences feasible and impactful across

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industries. Image processing is a phenomenal use—case of AI and ML, it keeps on accomplishing uplifting changes in these technologies as the years go by. This review demonstrates a unique research and technology future in AR/VR in anticipation of quantum intelligence, haptic feedback or enhanced privacy features to be developed; those futuristic applications that still is an open field for investigation (e.g., some personalization healthcare through the smart senses), as well might create opportunities which benefit urban planning.

Keywords Augmented Reality (AR) · Virtual Reality (VR) · Image Processing · Artificial Intelligence (AI) · Real-time rendering · Object recognition · Immersive technologies

1 Introduction to Augmented and Virtual Reality

Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR): Meanwhile, these are the innovative technologies to enrich our day-to-day lives experience through a digital layer on top of an existing environment either integrating physical audience activity or filling a new angle with 100% immersion [1]. AR is the technology that superimposes computer-generated images, sounds and other sensory enhancements over a real-world environment in real-time enriching it but not fully replacing them with physical objects [2]. The uses of augmented reality can be seen in multiple verticals such as healthcare, educational and retail where the immersive digital elements provide context aware information and visualizations which makes it easy-to-learn | diagnose or engage with a product. In contrast, VR places the user in an entirely digital environment where they lack physical presence and would not have any influence with a computer-based reality [3]. The possibilities of this are insane for simulation as well training and even entertainment where you can interact with 3D spaces or objects that feels tangible but at the same time abstract [4, 5].

Images from Advances in Image Processing and Psychologies of VisionCertainly, hardware/software/image processing techniques are three principal drives behind the recent advancements made by AR & VR technologies but it leaves a wide scope for further research as vision is calculated to be around 85–90% of human perceptions [6]. Over time, the displays of this type have evolved to provide higher and higher resolution (e.g., HD quality) as well as enhanced in-theater motion tracking/sensing technologies for more realistic and physically responsive interactions within the environment. The inclusion of Artificial Intelligence (AI), Machine Learning (ML) leverage the power of AR and VR to even more unexplored possibilities like advanced image recognition, real-time rendering, adaptive user experiences [7]. As these technologies continue to evolve, future changes in how we experience digital content as well as hardcoded layers of reality are inevitable, significantly enriching and making more engaging experiences certain domains [8].

1.1 Defining Augmented and Virtual Reality

Both Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR); interconnected, somewhat different technologies developed in digital realm which are now considered as a major contributors of great experience. Augmented reality adds digital information such as images, sounds and other sensory inputs to supplement a user's view of the real world [9]. This blending of physical and virtual is what helps users better understand where they are. Most AR devices available on the market are based around smartphones, tablets and headsets to display optical overlays which enable a person to see physical environment alongside having digital content. AR is most commonly used in mobile games (Pokémon GO), navigation tools with live directions, and educational resources that create interactive visualizations of complex subject material [10].

On the other hand, VR builds completely immersive digital worlds that erase any trace of the user's physical world. Users experience immersion via head-mounted displays (HMDs) that make them feel like they are present in the computer-generated world and can interact with it. This sense of immersion is effectively married with spatial audio, haptic feedback and motion tracking to allow users much more than the ability to look around a virtual space [11]. The impact of VR ranges from games to applications in serious industry sectors such as aviation, medicine and gaming toys etc. The primary objective of VR is to usher a user into fully imagined reality where one can manoeuvre, interact and have control over things like it was real [12]. Figure 1 shows the Immersion features of VR, MR, and AR.

Differences and Unique Characteristics

So the base differences between AR and VR stem from user experience (UX) and how they interact with our 'real' world. Augmented Reality in its very essence, has a substance of the extra something that just provides an addition to what

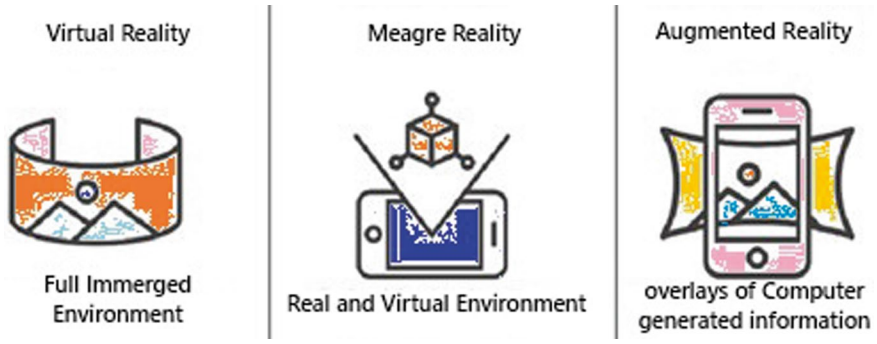

Fig. 1 Immersion features of VR, MR, and AR

already is and not changing much of it. This one is best suited for scenarios which require you to stay in touch with the real world and yet benefit from additional digital information [13]. In a manufacturing environment, or example, AR gives workers information with real-time data and guidance to overlay on their working space enhancing his efficiency and precision. VR is different in that it essentially replaces the real world with a virtual one, which can be all encompassing and transpolitizing It is able to capture the full attention of those using it, so is well suited for applications in which total focus and immersion are needed (e. g., training scenarios where users can carry out tasks that would be dangerous or risky in a physical world setting) [14]. Susceptible of simulating complicated situations and building a strong emotional bridge in the case of storytelling, VR has many possibilities for success when used as an instrumentation to education, therapy or entertainment [15].

Although both AR and VR use image processing and real-time rendering to provide an immersive experience, it is the intention of that immersion in interactions which separates uses cases between Augmented Reality (AR) versus Virtual Reality (VR) [16]. Given that AR and VR are often used in very different ways, it is important for developers and researchers alike to understand these differences so as enable them realise the potential of both technologies offer distinct advantages within respective contexts when tackling various applications [17].

1.2 The Role of Image Processing in AR and VR

Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) applications use Image Processing for better performance accuracy, as well as realism. Photo Manipulation Edit (Retouche) LA same as photo manipulation but with a different focus: It consists in the process of making revisions to photographs, either by changing what needs changing or simply beautifying them. Image processing in AR is applied to identify objects precisely and track them, so that digital overlays properly superimpose onto physical objects with high correspondence [18]. Feature detection and spatial mapping techniques are used to ensure that the virtual content interacts as if it is truly part of their physical environment. Image processing is also very important in VR, to create realistic environments and objects there making users feel more presence [19]. By using texture mapping, anti-aliasing and real-time shading offers high-quality graphics for containing a realistic virtual reality world. Thanks to the dedicated image processors which helps in making sure that it is delivering a smooth and latency free frame rates, both these are so important factors as otherwise this would lead into breaking your immersion or could even go on create motion sickness [20].

Additionally, image processing delivers an immersive and engaging experiences by providing general haptic service support with alternate user interfaces via through gesture recognition/eye tracking for intuitive controls of interaction. At a high level, image processing underpins much of AR and VR

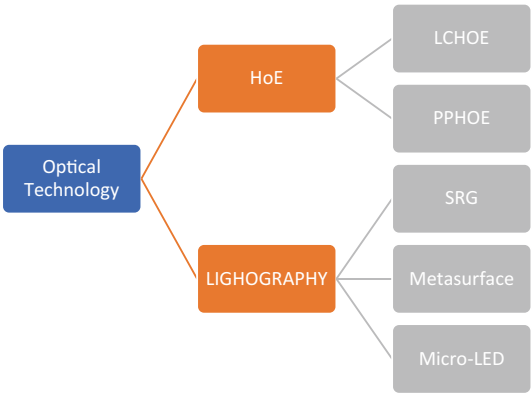

Fig. 2 A schematic of some upcoming optical technologies used in AR/VR

technologies—spinning out new ways to fundamentally change the perceptions and interactions with users among virtual or augmented realities [21]. A schematic of some upcoming optical technologies used in ar/vr as shown in Fig. 2.

1.3 Evolution of AR/VR and Image Processing Techniques

At the heart of Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) side by side develops in image processing technologies. An exploration back to the nascent concepts of computer graphics and human–computer interaction serves as a historical journey leading up towards immersive experiences [22]. Figure 3 represents the market of Augmented and Virtual Reality.

Early Developments

Fundamental technologies, like computer-generated imagery (CGI), which gave rise to AR and VR were first introduced in the 1960s-1970s. The first head-mounted display (HMD) was created by Ivan Sutherland in the 1960s, called as The Sword of Damocles which would provide a primitive VR experience but only within limits to technology of that era. At this point image processing was very limited it only really went as far rendering graphics and the systems were extremely computationally expensive making them prohibitive for general use [23].

1990s: The Rise of AR and VR

In the 1990s more complex image processing techniques were employed, and this was a game changer. This research evolved into experiments with the blending of digital information and physical environments that ultimately spawned fledgling AR applications. Other significant projects such as Boeing for their assembly line workers where digital overlays used to display real-time guidance resulted

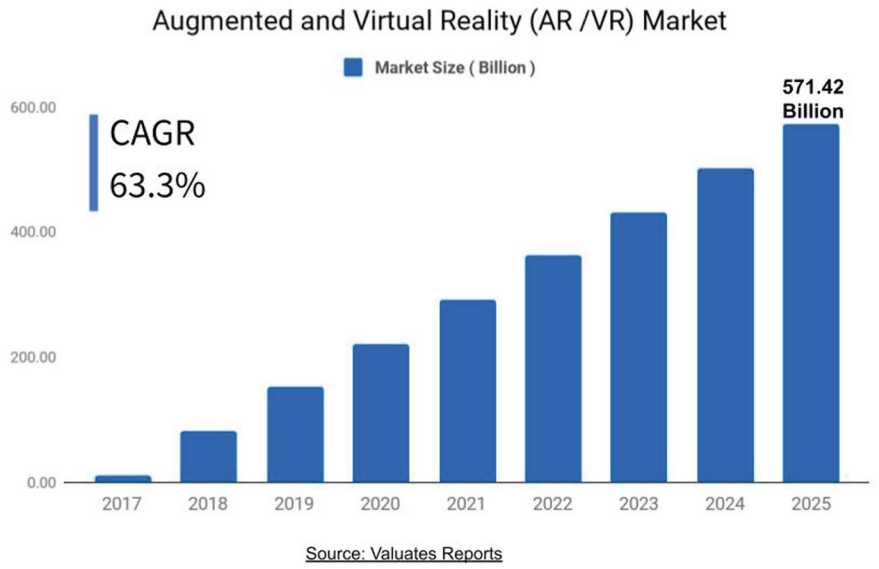

Fig. 3 Market of augmented and virtual reality

in increased productivity. This is also the era where VR in entertainment find its beginning, Sega and Nintendo launched early attempts on virtual reality gaming systems but ultimately failed due to technical challenges they face [24].

2000s: Advancements in Image Processing and Hardware

As computer graphics rapidly advanced through the 2000s, more sophisticated image processing algorithms were possible. Computer vision methods based on feature detection, image segmentation and 3D reconstruction made it more effective for AR systems to recognize objects as well as track them. It also saw the advent of smartphones, which made AR technology accessible to everyone in such apps as Layar and Wikitude. With the advent of highly advanced image processing techniques, real time rendering and interactive experience were started on portable devices [25]

2010s: Mainstream Adoption and AI Integration

Among the trends that catapulted AR and VR into a new stage of evolution during this decade was AI (Artificial Intelligence) image processing in the late 2010s. With CNNs object recognition entered a new decade and possibilities for augmented reality to become more dynamic, responsive applications added on top. The Microsoft HoloLens and the Oculus Rift made their appearance in high-profile releases which showed some of what immersive technologies could achieve,

leading to both more work into IP methods as well. And that Summed Up to Real-Time Depth Sensing and 3D Mapping, Increasing the Reality of AR & VR based Activities.

Current Trends and Future Directions

Innovations in image processing are critical to creating immersive experiences in the evolving field of augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) [25]. Key trends include:

Using Deep Learning and AI for Effective Image Enhancement The field of using deep learning models, particularly convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and generative adversarial networks (GANs), for image enhancement has been burgeoning to enhance the quality of image resolution and do real-time object detection and recognition inside the (AR/VR) environment. This translates into a far more seamless and natural experience as these models allow for fast processing.

Real-Time 3D Reconstructions Through computer vision techniques, this feature allows AR/VR applications to scan physical spaces and create a digital twin of the environments. This gives users the ability to accurately place virtual objects in the real world.

High Dynamic Range with High Dynamic Range (HDR) High Dynamic Range with High Dynamic Range (HDR) imaging and the proliferation of high-resolution displays, visuals are becoming richer and more photorealistic. HDR adds new dimensions to the sense of depth and clarity that AR/VR applications create, finally completing the immersive experience.

Optical Flow and Motion Tracking Optical flow algorithms are important for capture of user movements and convert them in VR worlds with low latency. The ability to track motion in real-time makes VR experiences more reactive, something that is particularly important for games, training, and simulations.

Real-Time Processing with Edge Computing More and more applications are using edge computing to minimize latency and bandwidth, meaning that image processing tasks are performed closer to the user (on-device) rather than on the network (i.e. cloud). It is also crucial for AR/VR, where interactions must be real time.

Future Directions

Image processing for AR/VR has an exciting future in the context of emerging converging technologies:

Light Field and Holographic Displays Future devices may feature light field and holographic display technologies that project full-color, head-mounted

display-free immersive three-dimensional imagery. It would change how we experience users and open up AR/VR apps in entertainment, education, and medicine.

Common Midjourney V5 updates-based features are Improved Photorealistic Rendering: More realistic-looking images through advanced photorealistic rendering features like ray tracing, path tracing, etc. They will complement virtual worlds by providing users with nearly ultra-realistic experiences.

Multisensory Integration Looking beyond visual stimuli, developers are working on future AR/VR systems that can provide additional sensory feedback in the form of haptic and auditory stimuli as well. This multimodal approach may enhance user immersion as visual processing becomes in synch with touch and sound to create a more natural sense of presence.

Augmented Remote Collaboration With remote steady expansion, AR/VR is set to bolster realistic gatherings with incorporated, vivid collaborations, where new picture handling structures will be critical on a solitary brief-level for planning virtual symbols and site outflows with high fidelity so people can act naturally while in legacy locations.

Better AI for Prediction and Adaptation of Rendering Advanced AI will be applied for more adaptive AR/VR experiences by learning how the user inhabits that world (i.e., where they are looking and/or how they are moving) so that predictive rendering can be employed that eliminates latency and provides experiences that are smoother and more personalized.

Eye Tracking and Foveated Rendering Eye tracking functionality will allow devices to leverage foveated rendering; the ability to render only the area where the user is looking in high detail, the rest can be rendered lower resolution thus decreasing battery load in AR/VR devices.

Conclusion These trends and future directions are really making AR/VR going through the transformation period, where improvement in image processing technologies will continue to improve immersion, realism, and application in industries.

1.4 Why Innovations in Image Processing Matter for AR/VR

The performance of Augmented Reality (AR) experiments and Virtual Reality (VR) experiences can be increased and made more realistic with the help of new feature set extractions with imagination and creativity. Image processing of high quality, with realism immersion to a user through idealistic object identification and rendering and interaction of objects both real and innervated and alive—whether in the land of zeros or ones and the non-digital—is the key. AR Image processing: The myra developments enable accurate alignment of the virtual object with the real world, creating a more cohesive and immersive experience.

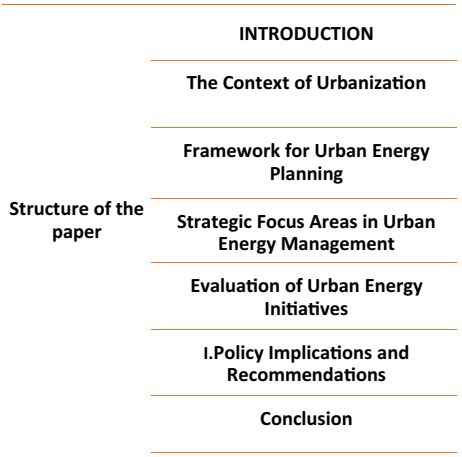

Fig. 4 Structure of paper

However, for VR this sort of advancement guarantees realistically textured and lit scenes alongside responsive depths—simply the nuts and bolts of verisimilitude. Deep Learning based Object detection triggered events and real-time 3D reconstruction are newer techniques to dynamically respond to user movement and actions and increase user immersion and participation even sharper. With AR/VR technologies set to be applied in a growing number of areas, from education and healthcare to manufacturing or entertainment, advances in image processing continue to deliver higher standards in terms of usage while also paving the way towards new approaches of using immersive technology that were out of reach in the past. Structure of the paper is as represented in Fig. 4.

2 Core Image Processing Techniques for AR and VR

Image processing is at the very core of what makes Augmented (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) apps work. Image segmentation—This helps segments a picture into various portions which can ultimately help you in segregating your objects within an image to just combine or help map that virtual entity on the real image. Algorithms e.g., Scale-Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) and Speeded Up Robust Features (SURF) are used for recognition and tracking of real world objects in changing environment. Depth sensing methods and approaches for 3D reconstruction is an important field in VR, as creation of realistic and immersive spatial that a system can understand and users easily navigate through it. Storefront: It is more realistic with using a real time rendering techniques, texture mapping, and shading with a virtual environment. Furthermore, with the rise of machine learning methods, particularly the CNNs for object detection and scene comprehension, we can have more intelligent and adaptive AR/VR systems. Combined, these techniques allows us basic image processing algorithms to be

implemented in AR and VR creating more advancements loopholes which expands the horizon of interaction layer and the immersiveness level that a user can experience [25].

2.1 2D and 3D Image Analysis Fundamentals

Introduction Image Segmentation: Image segmentation is an important method for 2D and 3D image analysis that enables the segmentation of an image into content that is useful. It helps to identify and isolate various discrete units in an image and lets the computer perform its functions like identification of objects, tracking them, recognizing them, and then understanding the scene for a better image analysis. For instance, in 2D images, it is a common practice to segment based on color, texture, or intensity using thresholding, clustering (K-means), and edge detection methods for segmenting between borders in images. In the case of 3D images, segmentation methods are often based on the analysis of volumetric data, such as region growing, voxel based segmentation, etc., to extract structures from three-dimensional datasets being of great use in areas such as medical imaging and robotics [25].

Image segmentation is usually combined with feature extraction. For 2D image analysis, we have HOG (Histogram of Oriented Gradients), LBP (Local Binary Patterns), etc. to extract the main features for the purpose of performing classifying and recognition tasks. Feature extraction for 3D images includes the extraction of geometric features and properties of surfaces using point cloud methods or meshes. Image transformation techniques such as affine and perspective transformation is important to transform images spatially and make sure that the object is represented correctly in different views and perspectives. Image segmentation together with feature extraction, together also feature transformation provide the fundamental building block necessary for sufficient image analysis in 2D and 3D, that are required for AR and VR applications [26].

2.2 Object Detection and Tracking in AR and VR

Techniques for Object Detection Object detection is a crucial part in AR & VR where the system relies on understanding and localization of the object in a visual scene. Bounding Boxes: Probably the simplest and easiest approach which is widely used, just like boxes, provides an rectangular visual window around the part of the observed object denoting the object so that it can easily be identified and classified. This paradigmn is frequently actualized using live algorithms like YOLO (You Only Look Once) and SSD (Single Shot Multibox Detector) and is helpful in dynamic situations. To track an object across frames or as the object

moves or changes position or orientation in the field of view, next object tracking methods use Scale Invariant Feature Transform (SIFT) or Oriented FAST and Rotated BRIEF (ORB) which locate and match keypoints in the image. These techniques are necessary for AR applications to be able to align computer-generated virtual content accurately on top of real-world objects and enable them to interact with the scene [27].

Neural Networks for Object Tracking With this, neural networks used in object detection and tracking with overlaying the virtual contents in AR and VR were used extensively in recent years with many applications such as healthcare, defence, and entertainment, etc. Compared to earlier, rule-based approaches that depend on hand-designed feature definition and selection, CNNs have demonstrated improved performance by learning complex features from large training sets that can direct accurate identification and tracking of objects but over conditions. The object detection algorithms, such as Faster R-CNN and Mask R-CNN, help provide accurate localization and segmentation of objects, which enables richer and context-aware interactions. Moreover, state-of-the art tracking algorithms (mostly based on Recuurent Neural Networks (RNNs)) are able to keep track of object identities through time, even under occlusions or rapid motion. That would provide the improved tracking necessary in AR, because virtual objects need to be tethered to real world objects even potentially when the user (and possibly real world objects) are moving. Neural network methods are developing to improve the way we can fine-tune our methods for detecting and tracking objects, and will bring us closer to the AR and VR experiences that this technology can provide [28].

2.3 Depth Sensing and Environment Mapping

SLAM (Simultaneous Localization and Mapping) For Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) applications, Simultaneous Localization and Mapping (SLAM) is a key technology for depth sensing and environment mapping. Simultaneous Localization and Mapping, or SLAM, is a computer vision challenge that allows a device to build a map of an unknown environment whilst keeping track of its own position in that environment. Taking advantage of sensors like cameras, accelerometers, and gyroscopes, SLAM algorithms process images and detect points of interest for navigation and mapping in real-time. This feature is especially important for applications that require accurate spatial reference, such as indoor navigation and (co)robotics, allowing the user further interacting with the environment in a meaningful way both in AR and VR [29].

LiDAR and Stereo Vision Depth sensing using LiDAR (Light Detection and Ranging) and stereo vision are two advanced techniques that can contribute significantly into environment mapping. LiDAR works by shooting laser beam towards

an object, measuring the distance the laser traveled to come back with highly precise 3D representations of the environment. Especially in applications needing more in-depth spatial representation, like urban planning and topographical surveys, this technique is useful as it is able to resolve details in complicated environments at a much finer scale. Conversely, stereo vision uses two or more cameras to take pictures of the same scene, at different angles, and triangulates to achieve depth perception. It provides an inexpensive substitute for LiDAR retaining maximum depth information. These technologies work together to improve AR and VR systems' understanding of complex environments, allowing for more realistic user experiences and content integrated into the real world [29].

2.4 Image Augmentation for Realism and Immersion

Lighting Adjustments and Shadow Rendering Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) experiences rely heavily on image augmentation techniques like lighting and shadow rendering for realism and immersion. Lighting modifications refers to the adjustment of light sources in a scene, changing their intensity, direction, or color according to the properties of the environment lighting in the real environment. AR provides a higher level of immersion, as realistic immersion and AR rely on the accurate simulation of natural light interactions with objects in the real-world environment, allowing virtual objects to blend in more seamlessly with their environment, preserving the illusion of life. Shadow rendering is another component of realism, casting shadows into the environment consistent with the location of virtual objects and light sources. When the shadows are properly rendered, they give depth and spatial reference, which helps the user in perceiving the relationship between virtual elements and the physical elements, increasing immersion [30].

Texture Mapping Texture Mapping is another essential process in image augmentation that improves the appearance of AR and VR environments. It is for adding detailed surface textures to the 3D models, enhancing the look of the 3D model, and providing visual interest. Developers can create more realistic experiences for the users by using higher resolution textures to emulate complex materials like wood, metal, or fabric. In addition, these texture mapping techniques, like normal mapping and bump mapping, allow the appearance of depth and detail on flat surfaces, without the need for increased geometric complexity. This is especially beneficial with VR, as you want to get a high frame rate. All of these image augmentation methods play a crucial role in bringing realism and immersion in AR and VR apps and providing better interaction with virtual content in AR and VR to users [31].

3 Recent Innovations and Advanced Techniques in Image Processing

The more recent innovations in image processing have changed so much of AR and VRs, making the experiences more immersive and interactive. Object detection and segmentation have been revolved around several advanced techniques like deep learning which has transformed the world of the industry by improving the accuracy and efficiency with the use of boosted convolutional neural networks (CNNs) for real-time applications. In addition, Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) have been incorporated to generate naturalistic textures and environments, allowing for more tangible fusion of synthetically presented content with the real environment. Deep sensing innovations like time-of-flight cameras plus better SLAM algorithms have also improved spatial awareness, enabling finer degrees of mapping and navigation. At the same time, computational photography and image enhancement have three-dimensional image quality somewhat elevated as well, through HDR imaging and real-time rendering optimizations, making virtual reality experiences even more convincing. Such advancements not only set the stage for new AR and VR possibilities, but also drive the development of new uses of these technologies in education, healthcare, and entertainment [32].

3.1 Artificial Intelligence and Deep Learning in Image Processing

AI and deep learning have been paving the path for image processing in practice for AR and VR for a while now, and have evoked a greater sense of realism and interactivity with these technologies. CNNs are integral to many vision tasks like object detection, segmentation, and classification with unparalleled speed and accuracy for visual data. These complex architectures with vast data allow the CNNs to learn complex patterns and features which then allows real-time detection and tracking of objects in static or dynamic environments. Moreover, GANs (Generative Adversarial Networks) have become increasingly popular for generating realistic-looking synthetic images and textures that can be easily incorporated into virtual worlds to enhance the user experience and makes the digital content more appealing [33].

Although transformers were initially developed for natural language processing, they are increasingly being used in image processing as transformers can model long-range dependencies and contextual information in visual data. It improves functionalities like image generation and scene understanding to enable higher capabilities and context-aware interaction between AR and VR applications. In summary, the use of AI-based image processing techniques not only enhances the accuracy and speed of AR and VR experiences but also creates new opportunities for innovation across domains, including gaming, entertainment, education, and training, by making them more responsive and intelligent [34].

3.2 Real-Time Image Rendering and Dynamic Scene Composition

Real-time rendering with stable quality is important for a smooth and immersive experience when running Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) applications. This gives rise to a number of techniques that seek to maintain the balance between visual fidelity and performance. One of the key techniques is Level of Detail (LOD) rendering, which dynamically reduces the complexity of 3D models based on their distance from the observer. Rendering systems can thus trade resolution against distance; use low-res models for things far away and high-res for things that the camera is close to, maintaining important detail where it counts [35].

One of the biggest is with occlusion culling, where the engine decides what does and does not need to be rendered based on which objects are visible to the camera. This lowers the computational burden as well as improves rendering time, allowing it to process frames more smoothly. Moreover, deferred shading and advanced screen space reflectionsFar beyond, these give way to far more realistic lighting effects and reflections without needing to tax the GPU as heavily. Real-time ray tracing is also starting to take off with new lighting and shadow effects that aid in a more immersive visual experience. Together, these techniques enable AR and VR systems to deliver high-quality rendering while dynamically composing or composing scenes, preventing users from quitting the experience due to latency or visual artifacts that can happen when rendering complexity exceeds hardware capabilities [36].

3.3 Advances in 3D Object Recognition and Multi-object Tracking

Been waiting for some time for applications of 3D object detection and multi-object tracking, the recent communication of Artificial Intelligence (AI) for 3D object recognition and multi-object tracking has improved the accuracy and speed of Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR). Particularly, modern methods like deep learning and neural networks (especially with 3D convolutional neural networks (3D CNNs) and PointNet architectures) have helped processing and understanding of 3D data to be done in a more efficient way. Such approaches enable one to extract meaningful features from complex 3D environments, enhancing object recognition and classification in real time in cluttered or dynamic scenes [37].

The new features deploy ai-based algorithms for improved multi-object tracking capabilities, which help in maintaining identities of multiple objects when there are interactions. By relying on tracking-by-detection and data association techniques, such systems manage to better cope with occlusions and appearance

changes, yielding a more continuous and stable tracking performance. In turn, this will result in smoother interactions in addition to more immersive experiences as virtual objects react to the actions and movements of the users. All these factors make these AI enhancements not only more performant but also increase the reach of object recognition and tracking in AR and VR as well as in many other areas, such as robotics, surveillance, and gaming [38].

3.4 Super-Resolution and Image Enhancement Techniques

Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) have gained significant attention over the years in the research community and the super-resolution and image enhancement techniques are very critical to boost the visual quality, especially in low light or noise-intensive environments. Super-resolution techniques utilize sophisticated algorithms, often deep learning models, to recreate a high-resolution image from a low-resolution image. Especially in low light conditions, where similar details could be lost, these techniques help reveal such lost information, leading to sharper and richer images for the users. Using neural networks trained on huge datasets, these super-resolution models can determine missing texture and details which can lead to realistic images that draw the user into the experience [39].

Apart from super-resolution, different image enhancement approaches deal with noise removal and contrast enhancement, which are critical for obtaining clear images under adverse conditions. For example, histogram equalization or adaptive filtering adjusts brightness and contrast, preserving desired features to enhance image interpretation. Additionally, state-of-the-art denoising methods especially based on machine learning grow effortless, minimizing disturbing noise while keeping necessary details, which generates smoother and more pleasing visuals. These super-resolution and enhancement approaches are critical in ensuring high-quality visual experiences in AR and VR applications despite the challenges of the real-world environment [40].

4 Applications of Image Processing in Augmented and Virtual Reality

4.1 Medical and Healthcare Applications

The image processing is transforming the medical field by augmenting the AR and VR capabilities of the medical field. AR-based surgical procedures utilize immediate imaging and visualization technologies to contextualize one of the most important information above the surgeon's perspective, which then aid them with more accurate procedures. Example: For surgeons to plan incisions with minimal

risks while visualizing 3D anatomical structures เฌ ทดลอง ทางเข้า IP Bonus 3000 0712 do 0748 code signing error App TESTTARGET_NAME exited with abnormal code: 255 Medical VR—VR Simulations for Training Medical Professionals: In VR, medical professionals can train in high-quality environments where they perform surgical procedures without any of the associated risks. These offer realistic situations to help you learn the skills you need and make quick decisions in a crunch. Additionally, AR-ready services for real time diagnostics can help in assessing medical images and enable healthcare professionals to discern diagnoses in-time, helping patients in their recovery and organizations in managing operational parameters optimally [41].

4.2 Education and Training

The first application is augmenting reality and virtual reality to transform education through an immersive environment for learning that requires deeper engagement than traditional active learning. Students can visit history, uncover scientific principles, or role-play experiments within a safe virtual place in VR–based studies. Such a way of learning improves retention, critical thinking and collaboration of the users. AR applications create interactive classroom experiences, enabling students to visualize abstract ideas three-dimensionally for better understanding. AR has a variety of applications in education as it can spice up boring classes- for instance, AR can be used in anatomy lectures to see human organs in real time while conducting classes. The incorporation of these technologies in the learning environment will have the potential of making learning personal as these technologies encourage an interaction that is tailored to different ways of learning [42].

4.3 Industrial and Manufacturing Applications

AR is becoming very useful for maintenance in industrial sectors and operational efficiency. Thanks to AR-guided maintenance, technicians can now view detailed instructions overlaid on complex machinery parts, making repairs much faster and reducing the number of mistakes. Augmented reality (AR) devices allow workers to access real–time data and schematics so they can perform maintenance tasks in much less time and limit downtime. Digital twins—the virtual replicas of a physical system are also being used for monitoring and predictive maintenance. This enables companies to predict failures before they happen, optimising maintenance schedules and saving costs, by tracking real-time data from these digital twins. This foresight not only helps in making the process more productive but also results in more machine life contributing towards being successful manufacturers across the world [43].

4.4 Entertainment, Gaming, and Media Retail and E-commerce

With the application of image processing in AR and VR, the virtual entertainment world is experiencing a new wave of innovation. Immersive storytelling in gaming is facilitated by dynamic environments that make it possible for players to interact with virtual elements naturally. With VR gaming, players can immerse themselves in a realistic world and get to experience gameplay in a first-person style of play, which increases delight and engagement with the game. AR is also used in media to produce blended physical and digital real-but-interactive content like the cases of interactive documentaries and immersive advertising campaigns [44]. Media producers can offer unique experiences that push the envelope of traditional storytelling by using AR technologies to captivate an audience and entertain the distracted mind. AR and VR are revolutionizing the retail sector, providing consumers with more interactive and immersive platforms to shop. By enabling customers to see how something from clothing and accessories to makeup—might look on themselves before buying, virtual try on improve the online shopping experience in a major way. This technology enhances customer experience by ensuring more informed purchase decision that reduces return probability. Shoppable AR, which allows users to see items in their space, helps consumers make more informed decisions regarding size and fit. Apart from that, AR interactive ads also seize attention, and motivate customers to engage with your AR ad to create better brand interaction experiences. This implementation of these technologies allows retailers to create more personalized and delightful shopping experiences ultimately leading to increased sales and customer retention [45].

5 Challenges in AR/VR Image Processing

5.1 Hardware Limitations

Hardware is one of the primary limiting factors in the efficacy of AR and VR applications. The forgoing discussion highlights a key aspect; there should be some processing power as rendering of high-grade graphics and some complex simulations requires power. Not all existing devices are likely to deliver the required performance, leading to lag or a drop in visual fidelity. Display technology is just as important, because resolution, refresh rate, and field of view all contribute to the overall experience [46]. Displays with lower resolution lead to pixelation followed by disorientation, and a refresh rate below 90 Hz leads to motion sickness. Communications is also extremely power hungry, which needs to be a major concern for anything especially a mobile or wearable AR/VR device. The need for constant work around these limitations, mainly by hardware design, is to mitigate limited battery life which can limit how long an application can run the use case and functionality [47].

5.2 Latency and Real-Time Processing

Low latency is a must when it comes to the seamless and immersive experience that AR and VR aim to provide the user. It creates a break of interaction since high latency brings lagging between user actions and system response, and in some cases, it can even confuse and make users feel bad. In real-time processing, we have to optimize a lot of things which include sensor data acquisition, image rendering, object tracking and many more as well. This fashion demands optimized algorithms and high hardware use to lessen delays and make the system adequate to deal with complicated requests without reducing efficiency. Demand for real-time feedback is a hard problem because the applications are increasingly more complex, so processing techniques need constant research and develop [48].

5.3 Environmental Occlusion and Lighting Variability

In an AR setting, environmental occlusion and lighting variability are the two main difficulties communicating with real-world objects. Occlusions happen when virtual objects get clipped/hidden via real-world content which makes it difficult for the virtual elements to render accurately and interact properly with the environment of a user. To create realistic interactions, it is essential to build algorithms that can detect and manage the occlusions effectively. Furthermore, changes to lighting can cause a difference in the perceived position of virtual objects in relation to their physical environment. Ambient light differences can impact the accuracy of colours and depth, reducing the credibility of the augmented experience. The solutions to these challenges are high-level image processing solutions, since environmental factors may change, and the AR content needs to appear seamless without any limitations, etc. [49].

5.4 Privacy and Data Security Concerns

With AR and VR apps necessarily using personal information and real-time location, privacy and data security become significant concerns. Users may be reluctant to provide sensitive data for fear of misuse or leakage. Advertising and marketing via AR apps in general will be especially concerning since AR applications typically rely on cameras and sensors, which means that personal data may be collected without consent, akin to surveillance. It is important to ensure user trust; for that, security is required, such as data encryption and handling practices. Beyond that, developers have to adhere to complicated rules associated with data privacy, complying with them while making exciting and personalized experiences. To ensure widespread adoption of AR and VR technology we need to

work on these issues as people need to be certain that their information is safe and secure [50].

6 Future Directions and Research Opportunities

6.1 Advances in Quantum Computing and Quantum Intelligence

Quantum computing brings new transformational possibility for real-time image processing of Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) applications. The power of quantum computing to carry out complex calculations at unimaginable speeds may greatly improve the efficiency of image rendering, object recognition, and scene analysis. Quantum algorithms could allow for data to be handled in bulk and tasks related to processing images to be faster and more complex—all while being carried out in a real-time fashion with a lack of delays, thus creating a better user experience. New techniques for analysis techniques that could also have quantum phenomena, could emerge from research into quantum intelligence. Looking further, this could get even more interesting when we start to look at the ideas of quantum computing and the possibilities of quantum AR/VR systems to reveal more about the nature of reality.

6.2 Integration of Haptic Feedback and Sensor Fusion

The coupling of image processing with haptic response and sensor fusion can significantly increase immersion into AR and VR worlds. It includes tactile sensations that mesh with user interactions with so-called virtual objects and provides more meaningful experiences. Combining the above-mentioned methods with haptic techniques can promote synergistic interactions in which visual stimuli is supported by adequate tactile feedback. In addition, sensor fusion (combining information from various sensors, including cameras, accelerometers, and gyroscopes) can enhance tracking precision and responsiveness, rendering virtual experiences more immersive. Future of Custom fields in forms should be focused on making standardized protocols and frameworks that could facilitate integration of these technologies and provide seamless and interconnected experiences for end users.

6.3 Ethical and Inclusive AR/VR Design

With the emergence of both AR and VR, the practice of ethical design, accessibility and inclusiveness is rising in importance. Tackling algorithmic bias will be important for making sure these technologies will be fair and available to all user

groups. Work in this area can aim to address aspects such as how to avoid bias in training data; or how adjust algorithms to be inclusive. Moreover, ensuring accessibility to AR and VR applications for people with disabilities is key for expanding the scope of AR and VR solutions. This has also important implications for future studies; the design of interfaces and interactions that allow the inclusion of more diverse needs so that users can interact meaningfully with these sorts of technologies. With an eye toward ethics and inclusion, AR and VR have the power to create a more just digital world.

6.4 Expanding Use Cases for AR/VR with Next-Gen AI Models

As new next-generation AI models are announced regularly, we will see more and more ways to increase the scale of AR and VR use cases in the industries. In areas like healthcare, innovative applications will spring forth with AR tools driven by AI which can not only make surgery more precise but make care more effective with better and more real-time training simulations. Artificial Intelligence (AI) can enhance Virtual Reality (VR) experiences in various fields like education by personalizing learning paths, adapting the content according to the preferred learning types of students. AR can be useful in different fields, such as in tourism and real estate, where virtual tour features can be utilized to tour the property or historical site. We encourage future research to investigate these emerging applications in which the potential of advanced AI is combined with AR and VR to create transformative experiences with opportunities to solve real-world challenges in different domains.

7 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have covered the fundamental and intricate relationship between image processing and AR and VR, exploring history, techniques and applications. These findings show that image processing is not only a practical necessity but also a critical component of building an immersive and interactive user experience. We have achieved the following objectives outlined in the Introduction: (1) defining the role of image processing in AR and VR, (2) reviewing recent developments, and (3) identifying opportunities for future research.

Why it matters: These developments are notable as they could change the landscape of numerous fields from health care to education where more immersive interaction becomes possible. Classroom training may become more effective, medical procedures may become much more efficient, entertainment may become

an immersive experience, and users may enjoy better user experiences and enjoy better operational efficiency out of these domains.

But this has not solved the problems like limitations of hardware, latency issues, and ethics factors, which justify that research is still open in this domain. In future work, it should be evident how to exploit these limits with quantum computer and AI and the new possible applications.

The incorporation of improving image processing techniques in AR and VR is imperative following its expansion and usage. These technologies are still developing, but have the potential to change the world as we know it and how we experience interactive content. There is more work ahead to improve the applications that we have already built and find new opportunities in the innovative and interactive applications of those that are yet to come.

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Displays for Virtual Reality and Augmented Reality: New Development and Potential Directions

Vivek Kumar, Kapil Joshi, Vineeta Singh, and Amrendra Tripathi

Abstract One significant technological advancement that can improve the realism and intelligence of virtual worlds is image processing. Users can have more immersive and interesting experiences thanks to image processing. Virtual and augmented reality have the potential to revolutionize the interface between the digital and physical worlds. The necessity for effective image depth information processing is highlighted by the growing demand for apps utilising virtual and augmented reality. The fields of augmented reality and virtual reality (AR/VR) have enormous potential to transform interactions in areas where as remote collaboration, virtual training simulators and immersive education etc., communicate, and work together. Specifically, the recently developed mobile applications for augmented reality and virtual reality are expected to be among the most demanding ones that have been run on wireless networks to far. For immersive user experiences, augmented and virtual reality technologies primarily rely on video streaming and playback. The goal of augmented reality (AR) is to alter how real-world visuals are perceived by superimposing digital data on top of them. Real-time information augmentation of the real world is possible. The main objective of AR is to embrace the outdoors and develop a creative and effective paradigm for every application. We address augmented reality, virtual reality, and several methods of virtual reality and augmented reality for image processing in this research. The objective of this review is to offer a comprehensive grasp of feature detection and matching, object recognition and segmentation, 3D reconstruction, image registration and tracking. This paper discusses technical issues and makes recommendations for additional study to improve image processing in virtual reality and augmented reality.

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Keywords Virtual reality · Iterative closest point · Multi-view stereo · Speeded-up robust features · R-CNN · Augmented reality

1 Introduction

Image processing is the act of changing something a image in order to enhance it or extract valuable information from it. It aids in refining or repairing a photograph. An image is the input, and the output could be an improved image or a subset of the image's key information. One element of the low-level portion of image analysis or computer vision system is image processing. The outcome of the image processing can have a significant impact on the high-level portion that follows, which handles data recognition and comprehension. The alteration of images, such as super-resolution, denoising, dehazing, deblurring, etc., is called image processing [1]. Enhancing images for human understanding is aided by it. As computer networks have advanced, so too have digital image processing techniques. The rising standard of mathematics and the ongoing demand for these techniques from a range of societal industries have all contributed to the advancement of digital image technology and opened up new avenues for its application. The need for digital image processing technology is growing as a result of ongoing technological advancements and applications in several industries, which is also hastening the field's development [2]. Augmented reality and Virtual reality are newer disciplines in both academia and business. Immersive and interactive virtual image presentation offers a novel user experience for a range of applications [3]. Virtual and augmented reality are two quickly developing technologies that could drastically alter our way of life. Conventional AR/VR systems initially use image sensors to capture raw images. They then send those images, via the proper communication channel, to a separate CPU for additional processing. This processing usually entails the use of numerous DNNs for tasks like hand and eye tracking. However, this centralised processing strategy results in a data transfer that is both energy-intensive and slow, making the system's performance unsuitable for real-time VR/AR applications because of the high cost of communication [4]. With virtual reality (VR) technology, users can engage with a computer-simulated environment. Avatar creation, motion tracking, object detection, and facial recognition are a few image processing techniques used in VR technology. Virtual reality allows users to fully submerge themselves in a state that appears realistic and unfolds in front of them. However augmented reality (AR) technology integrates two- or three-dimensional (virtual) items into the physical world. Users can project virtual things as if they were real owing to AR technology [5]. One of the most popular and growing immersive experiences of the twenty-first century is augmented reality, or AR. AR has revolutionised several fields, such as healthcare and medicine, education and training, tourism, design, manufacturing, and other related businesses. As a result of these industries' adoption, AR has grown at an unprecedented rate. Nonetheless, modern smart devices are powerful enough to run augmented reality apps with ease. There's been a lot of research on AR on mobile

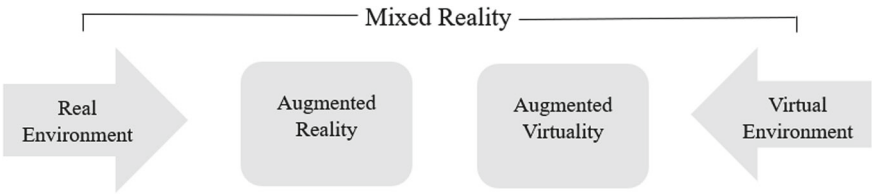


Fig. 1 Continuity of reality and virtual

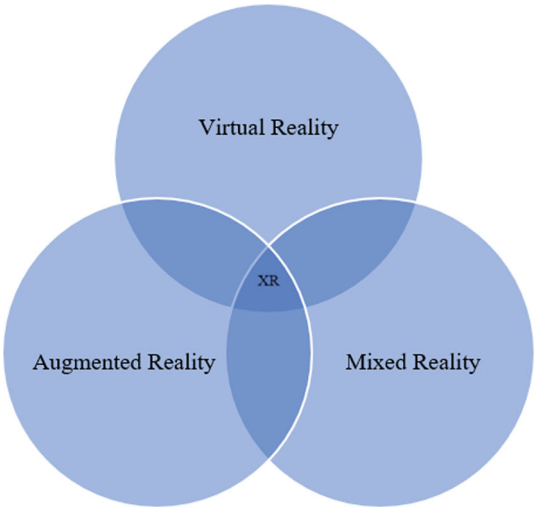
devices [6]. AR technologies require a lot of gear and software. Certain gadgets are required, such as global positioning systems, wearable computers, head-mounted devices, etc. AR and VR apps can be produced using several techniques, one of them being deep learning. The "Google Lens" software is one prominent instance of deep learning in augmented reality. Google Lens recognises objects, text, and landmarks using the camera of the user by combining deep learning and computer vision algorithms. Google Lens analyses a scene and returns pertinent information, including a product's name, a restaurant's address, or a word's definition [7]. Between the actual and virtual worlds are augmented reality and virtual reality, which when combined produce mixed reality, as seen in Fig. 1.

Real things make up the Real Environment. Augmented reality is the real-time integration of digital data with the user's environment. When employing augmented reality (AR), users see a real-world environment overlaid with artificial perceptual data. Augmented Virtuality merges real-world things in a virtual space. In essence, it is a hybrid reality framework that brings elements from the physical world into the digital one. A virtual environment is a networked program that lets users communicate with each other and the computer environment as well as other users' work. An emerging technology that combines VR with AR is called mixed reality [8]. The current trend in Virtual Reality and Augmented Reality image processing places a strong emphasis on improving visual perception and using cutting-edge algorithms. The increasing interest in using VR and AR technology to improve image processing capabilities in several domains. Over the past three decades, extended reality, which includes virtual reality, augmented reality, and mixed reality has become increasingly prevalent in the workplace. Extended Reality as shown in Fig. 2.

2 Augmented Reality

Through the use of computer-generated perceptual data, augmented reality (AR) enhances the real environment and makes it more engaging. This technology has proven beneficial to a wide range of sectors and industries, such as industry, entertainment, healthcare, and tourism. However, experts guarantee that this is just the beginning and that more advanced, affordable, and easily accessible AR applications will be released in the future [9]. Its basic idea is to replicate the real world and then

Fig. 2 Extended reality



apply computer produced virtual data—text, images, videos, 3D models, music and so on—to it. This leads to an improvement in the real world of the complementary nature of the two types of knowledge. The field of augmented reality (AR) has steadily advanced from theoretical laboratory research to widespread consumer and commercial use. By bridging the gap between the digital and real worlds, augmented reality (AR) allows users to engage with their environment in new ways and perceive it from different angles [10]. Its three primary features are its integration of virtual and real-world elements, its real-time user interaction, and its 3D registration. Additionally, it gives users flexibility and novel experiences by enabling them to move and examine a 3D virtual image from any location, much like they would a real thing [11]. Figure 3 depicts the architecture of augmented reality.

Augmented reality creates a stunning virtual result by fusing a user's immediate surroundings with a real-time digital image or image. Images must be recognised in order for augmented reality systems to function. Real-world objects are identified to superimpose the virtual objects by identifying visual indicators embedded within the system [12]. Furthermore, augmented reality apps can be a tool for improving

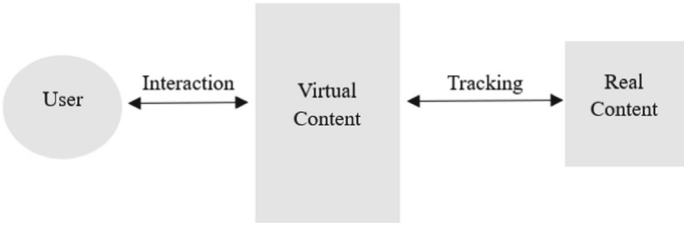


Fig. 3 Architecture of augmented reality

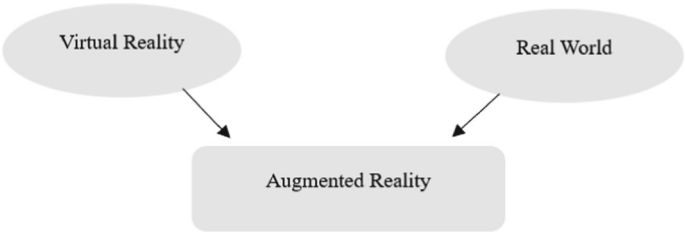


Fig. 4 Relationship between AR and VR

the library's usability, as interactive apps can improve the user experience [13]. The convergence of the virtual and physical worlds to create the augmented reality experience is clearly seen in Fig. 4.

3 Virtual Reality

An interactive, three-dimensional computer-produced world that people can engage with is referred to as virtual reality (VR). VR is often accessed using a computer with user identification sensors and the ability to project 3D data onto a display, such as an isolated screen or head-mounted display (HMD) [14]. In order to achieve long-range transmission, we sense through virtual reality how distant items and people exist in the surrounding environment, comparable to virtual persons and stuff. At the moment, composite content for games and entertainment is the primary use case for VR apps [15]. There are three categories of virtual reality: cave-based virtual reality, which provides a wide-ranging sensory experience in a compact area; desktop virtual reality, which creates a 3D landscape using computer 3D modelling and allows users to watch and interact with it on a computer, smartphone, tablet, and other devices; and fully immersive VR system, which achieves immersion through VR equipment [16]. Computer graphics, sensor technology, interaction technology, and network technology are all combined in virtual reality technology. The ability to facilitate real-time user engagement is the most fundamental prerequisite for virtual reality technology [17]. Virtual realities are digital experiences created in computer-generated worlds. There are three basic forms of virtual realities that may be distinguished: non-immersive, semi-immersive, and full immersive. These sorts of virtual realities vary in the degree and calibre of emotions they evoke [18].

Non-immersive Virtual Reality: This type of VR is typically accessed via a computer monitor or console game system, and it is typically viewed in two dimensions. The subject can utilise devices like joysticks, force sensors, or mice to interact with the environment that is displayed on a screen. An avatar appears on the monitor, and the viewpoint is third person [19].

Semi-Immersive VR: This type of VR aims to maintain a physical model, or by achieving a high level of immersion with desktop VR's comfort and ease of usage.

Immersive VR: Completely submerged Virtual reality provides the highest level of immersion and is frequently the most expensive. With the help of this system, users can navigate the virtual environment as if it were genuine and real, giving them a stronger experience of Presence—the sensation of actually being there [20].

4 Different Augmented Reality and Virtual Reality Techniques for Image Processing

AR and VR technologies offer engaging and immersive experiences using a variety of image processing techniques. These consist of real-time rendering, photo registration and tracking, depth estimation, feature identification, and 3D reconstruction.

Image Registration and Tracking

For many years, the ICP algorithm—which has been in widespread use—has been considered the oldest technique for registering point cloud information. ICP has the main benefit of producing extremely strong and reliable results [21]. Figure 5 illustrates the fundamental idea; objective is to solve the spatial transformation between the source point cloud P and the target point cloud Q in the overlapping region in order to decrease the distance between two-point cloud segments [22].

Assume the translation and rotation faults of Q and P are represented by the vector E(R,t). The following formula can be used to express it:

$$E(\mathrm{R}, \mathrm{t}) = \sum_{(i-1)}^{n} \|\mathrm{Q_i} - (\mathrm{P_i} * \mathrm{R} + \mathrm{T})\|^2 \tag{1}$$

where the intended point cloud $\mathrm{Q_i}$ corresponds to the point cloud of sources $\mathrm{P_i}$, and R stands for rotation and t for translation.

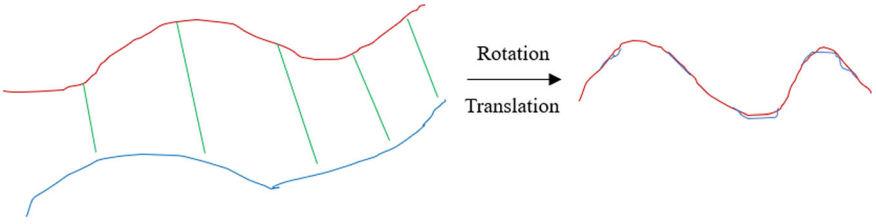


Fig. 5 ICP Algorithm

3D Reconstruction

With the help of several image views and tiny baseline changes, the Multi View Stereo technique handles different camera calibrations to calculate the camera's attributes. This method identifies the many image viewpoints in order to determine the common spots of the photos while reconstructing the 3D structure of the images [23]. Reconstruction efficiency and quality have remarkably improved with learning-based MVS networks. A CNN is typically used by an MVS network to extract image features, and the network creates warping the source photos to match the reference view results in a cost volume. MVS matches features one to many wherein every pixel in the reference image is expected to search in all distorted source images along the epipolar line in order to get the best depth at the lowest matching cost [24].

Feature detection and Matching

Finding the right algorithms to complement the points extracted and extracting invariant local features—a technique for identifying various little portions in the image, like blobs and corners—are crucial to maximize the visual measuring process's real-time efficiency and provide reliable results [25]. SURF stands for accelerated robust features, a proprietary local feature detector and descriptor. It is applicable to applications like 3D reconstruction, image registration, object detection, and classification. The SIFT descriptor, which is scale-invariant, served as some inspiration for it. In the detection SURF to rough Gaussian smoothing, square-formed channels are used. Comparing each pixel to its neighbours both within and between adjacent scales allows for the detection of extrema. This procedure can be shown as:

$$\mathrm{DoG}(x, y, \sigma) = G(x, y, k\sigma) - G(x, y, k\sigma) \tag{2}$$

The DoG reaction at coordinates (x, y) and scale σ is denoted by DoG(x, y, σ), while the Gaussian reaction at (x, y) coordinates and scale σ is represented by G(x, y, σ) [26].

Object Recognition and Segmentation

The most widely used method for both semantic segmentation and item detection in photos of real-world scenes is deep learning. End-to-end object detection, segmentation, and classification for image processing is made feasible [27]. In addition, several effective object detection frameworks, like as R-CNN, Fast R-CNN, and Faster R-CNN, are used for face detection in order to improve detection performance. The primary functions of these techniques are face detection and face bounding box locating [28]. Rectangular region and convolutional neural network features are combined in R-CNN. It is a detection method with 2 stages. A subset of an image's areas that might contain an item are located in the first step. The object is categorised in each region in the second step. By analysing the entire image and all ROIs using a common convolutional layer rather than handling every ROI independently, Fast R-CNN outperforms R-CNN. As a result, object detection requires a lot less computing time. An end-to-end trained single-stage model is called Faster R-CNN. Unlike other

methods, it uses a special region proposal network to generate region ideas faster. It takes a fixed length feature vector and extracts it from each region that the ROI pooling layer suggests.

5 Challenges of AR and VR

In general, creating a solid AR/VR system design that incorporates all image processing methods is difficult and fraught with problems, including technical ones. The main difficulties with AR and VR are:

Performance: Real-time processing, responding, and adapting to changes in the real world are the focus of performance challenges. Applications for augmented reality may work less well in real time.

Security and trust: Implementing procedures for confirming the object's validity through, say, certificates, is important because each device is unknown to the other devices. The assurance of information delivery and communication security is another important factor. Any untrusted device, virus, or information packet loss that compromises the proper operation of the entire AR system is not admissible.

Software Challenges: To build realistic virtual environments and smoothly superimpose digital content on the actual world, complex systems, programming, and frameworks are required. In order to provide unified user experiences with the fewest possible defects, software must seamlessly integrate a variety of device inputs, sensors, interfaces, platforms, and engines. The development of VR/AR software requires a specialised skill set and a tight budget.

Expensive: Cost is another challenging problem. Since these technologies are more expensive and more current, many small and medium-sized firms cannot afford them.

Awareness: Since technology is advancing so swiftly, many people are still unaware of these new advancements, their advantages, disadvantages, and applications. Therefore, it is necessary to raise people's awareness through lectures and demonstrations.

Hardware Challenges: Most current implementations still require specialist hardware and peripherals, like handsets, to give consumers an enhanced experience when interacting with virtual objects within an application built on top of this technological stack. The layout limits accessibility for people who, because of monetary constraints or other factors, like a restricted amount of area, are unable to utilise such equipment at home or at their place of employment.

Latency Issues: Latency is essentially the difference in time between signals transmitted to and received by the software and hardware used for virtual reality. Customers want a faultless experience, yet latency issues plague virtual reality.

6 Future Scope

The future of AR and VR is bright and promising. Future AR/VR technology will provide experiences that are easily accessible, exquisitely crafted, and customised for each user. When digital components combine with 3D virtual things with the aid of an augmented reality gadget, it's known as augmented reality. A completely immersive experience that replaces the real world with a virtual one is called virtual reality (VR). Future directions for AR research in robotics include broad range of vision, excellent-resolution display systems, sophisticated systems for monitoring and sensing that can instinctively adapt so that a virtual item is able to be situated precisely inside an AR environment, and sophisticated AR simulation platforms and user interfaces that can faithfully replicate simulated scenes in the physical world. VR is moving more and more towards multimodal experiences in the future. A more realistic virtual environment makes for a more captivating and immersive experience for the user.

7 Conclusion

AR and VR image processing offers a lot of advantages and enormous possibilities. It provides a better user experience and lets the student interact with virtual three-dimensional items. Augmented reality (AR) provides an interactive experience with the real world through computer-generated perceptual information. Technologies for augmented and virtual reality are becoming more and more popular. Thus far, augmented reality has primarily thrived on smartphone apps; some of its biggest proponents are games like Pokemon Go or the newly launched Google Maps function. On the other hand, the popularity of virtual reality has increased due in large part to the videogame industry and more reasonably priced devices. In order to create immersive and captivating experiences, this paper aims to give a thorough overview of the image processing algorithms used in VR and AR systems. A thorough summary of approaches used in AR and VR is provided, along with a review of current advancements and challenges. The following is a discussion of various AR and VR image processing techniques: We examine 3D reconstruction multi-view stereo, object recognition and segmentation R-CNN, feature detection and matching SURF, and image registration and tracking ICP.

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